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ABSTRACT

Presented is the final report of a project to plan a field teacher training program for preparing educators to work as social change agents with particular emphasis on preventing handicaps. The report is divided into two parts: Part I on the general schemes of the field teacher training model and the methods and procedures employed in its development; and Part II which presents supporting concepts and analyses of the field teaching model. Covered in chapter 1 are philosophical and conceptual foundations for the training of field teachers in human differences and social systems, Theoretical foundations of training, and a description of the field training model in terms of its four major components (explanatory statements about relationships among independent and dependent program variables, directions for planning an individualized learning program, the substance of the program, and relationships between affective and cognitive domain changes). Reviewed in Chapter 2 are the two types of procedures (administrative arrangements and the construction and testing of field teaching models) which were used to complete the project. The role which special education plays in developing the field teaching model is examined in Chapter 3. Outlined in Chapter 4 is the social science model of handicaps. An analysis of the model's development and the issues, propositions, and hypotheses which make up the field teacher training model are presented in Chapters 5 and 6. Also included are appendixes (with information on such topics as ideal field teacher training program content), charts, and tables. (SB)

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FIELD TEACHING:

A Report of Planning a Social Science Based Teacher Training Program

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Acknowledgements

Ideas are the wings of dreams; the ideas in this field teacher planning report are the expression of dreams and efforts of many people for a social change role for teachers leading to a more equitable life for all. Dreams are the reality of fantasy; the dreams of equality in this report are early steps in constructing a role to establish increased life chances and opportunities for stigmatized people balanced by the fantasy that today's world will be unchanged tomorrow. Ideas, dreams and fantasys in this report are the results of many hours of effort by many people.

Some of this effort was combined into working groups. The most intense group was of students registered in various field work courses in the undergraduate major in Human Behavior, the graduate courses in special education titled Psychology and education of exceptional children, Sociological theory and research related to intellectual retardation, and swing courses such as Mental Retardation. These courses were offered by the senior and second authors to students at Peabody and in the Nashville University Center. Other intense working groups involved in implementing prototypes of this project were the Human Behavior Coordinating Committee, the Special Education Task Force in Community Education, the National Advisory Board and the National Working Committee for the Field Teacher project. These groups provided valuable input of ideas, references and professional encouragement necessary to implement and interpret results of the prototypes. These groups provided administrative arrangements for the project to result in this report. In addition, the Department of Education and Training, Wassaic Developmental Center, New York Department of Mental Hygiene provided administrative arrangements for the preparation of the final draft of the report.

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To all of these people, and to students and other colleagues who shared our interests in designing a social organization-change role for teachers, grateful appreciation is expressed.

PREFACE

Two developments facilitated the request for funds to support this project to plan a social science based field teacher training program. First, over the past eight years, several faculty members and students interested in the sociology of exceptional children exchanged ideas, shared experiences, and reviewed empirical data and theories concerning the social nature of personal troubles. Second, the faculty at Peabody inaugurated two new curricular sequences: (1) an undergraduate interdisciplinary major in human behavior and (2) a cross categorical, task force approach in special education for the preparation of people to give priority in their professional work to those called handicapped. These developments provided this project a planning base which acknowledges the shifting administrative curricular context of higher education but has roots which extend through eight years of serious attempts to devise an alternative to the existing people-changing orientation of special education. Field teaching is an attempt to review current understandings of the social context within which people-changing occurs and to suggest alternatives to the traditional orientation of special education.

This project report concerns relationhsips between people-changing, education in its broadest sense, and society. Studies have been conducted in order to draw out some of these relationships. Sometimes the studies were conducted through asking and answering questions among colleagues; sometimes they were field trials of tentative answers developed in these talk sessions; sometimes they were individual efforts to understand responses people gave to both talk and field trials. In each case, systematic procedures were followed yielding volumes of collected newspapers and other documents, hundreds of pages of field notes, hundreds of miles of travel and occasional "ah-ha's".

Numerous attempts were made to move beyond treatments of education being considered synonymous with people changing through schooling to the interaction between people engaged in normal everyday events. Probes were developed to understand the thinking and feeling of community members, and to rationalize our images of the learning processes used to solve common and unique problems. In conducting these probes we accepted that each new member of a group must learn to act somewhat as other members of that group acted or they would be excluded; we accepted that each member contributed to the maintenance, and/or the change of the group. Further, we accepted that each member of one group also would be a member of other groups, and that sometimes these multiple memberships would precipitate conflicting intra- and inter-group demands.

The studies which generated this report focused upon education as learning to solve problems encountered in cross group memberships. Education, then, is an instrument for survival in everyday life; it consists of trial-and-error activities and their substitutes (being told orally or in writing of other people's trials-errors and accomplishments). Education is also an instrument for adaptation and change of the group structure and function to more clearly allow individual members to decide the consequences of their own actions in various settings. When studied this way, education is the point of intersection between social groups, between new and old group members, between elements of social systems, and between the past and the future. Such a view of education provides a context for understanding the social meanings of people-changing fads, whether emphasizing the technologies of precision teaching, parent effectiveness training or encounter therapy, whether emphasizing directed skill building such as through vocational training or direct instruction in reading, or whether emphasizing content acquisition as in traditional social studies classes.

Schooling and teaching are directed vehicles for conducting educative processes in at least quasi-systematic ways. We accept that schooling is attended by a minority of the human population at any given time and that few chances exist for a change in this condition; we accept that schooling is a socially acceptable short-cut to assist some people in avoiding the trails-and-errors encountered in the past and to assist some people in going beyond accomplishments obtained in the past; we accept that some group members benefit from schooling more than others and that differences in benefits are usually attributed to individuals rather than to some function of concurrent group memberships which they maintain. Further, we accept that teaching in its most ideal state consists of mentoring, incorporating much of that which is specific to social group memberships held by the mentor, not necessarily social group memberships held or to which are aspired by all students; we accept that teaching in its least ideal state consists of explicit attemtps to control through various degrees of coercion (rewards and punishments) the behaviors of other group members, especially when ends of the control are the cracking of reading, writing, and computational codes, and the convience to the teacher of having a quiet, orderly room. We accept that these are parts of life today.

Field teaching is an attempt to use the generic or root ideal functions of directed educative processes and to reconstruct mentoring processes so that they apply to settings other than just schools. Although schooling and school teaching present an overwhelming set of problems to be explored and resolved, educative processes in non-school settings appear to be even more generic to general social interaction which leads to differential styles/forms of survival. The processes considered are those used by symbolic interactionists, namely the functions considered and understood through concepts of socializing, reference grouping, developing others, and labeling. Thus, this project was conducted to design a program outline for preparing field teachers which would incorporate these concepts into its theoretical model and these functions into the activities of social mentors involved in identifying alternative resolves to some common daily problems.

Although labeled "Final Report" this document can not be accepted as the end or total development of social science impact upon the education of handicapped people. This report is simply another step in attempting to articulate existing relationships between social science knowledge and professional practice. This project seeks to answer the questions: (a) which information and procedures from the social sciences, mainly sociology, may be used to prevent handicapping conditions from developing, at least in high risk areas and (b) which conceptual models for training and service must be developed before prevention can be conducted more extensively?

Special Project Objectives. Specific objectives of this special project are:

a. To develop a model for training field teachers as prevention agents.

   i. The model will be based upon information and practices developed in the social sceinces.

   ii. The model will recognize inter- and intra-individual differences among people and among social institutions.

   iii. The model will include a means for evaluating the effectiveness of the training program.

   iv. The model will incorporate trainees views, training activities, and prevention effectiveness.

b. To implement a trial prototype of the model for training prevention agents.

   i. The implementation will be based within the existing cooperative endeavors of the Interdisciplinary Undergraduate Major in Human Behavior, the Department of Special Education, and the Neighborhood Learning Center (NLC), all conducted under the direction of Peabody College faculty.

   ii. The implementation will be conducted in various field stations currently being used or to be developed in Human Behavior and Special Education students, and in various (NLC) field stations.

   iii. The implementation will include an evaluation component which which will provide daily and periodic objective and subjective information in order to make decisions about the utility of the training model, progress of the training, and about the prevention of handicaps.

This project was undertaken because previously no systematic consideration had been given by special educators to the potential impact of the social sciences upon deciding what a handicap is and what can be done about it. The project results in a conceptualization of handicaps which allows active prevention of their development, and provides indices to reduce the severity of the impact handicapping conditions produce once they develop.

While Joseph J. Cunningham supervised the field activities upon which this report is based, Robert J. Stachowiak analyzed the data generated through these daily activities and Ronald Lukenbill participated in and gathered the data regarding the daily activities surrounding this project, major responsibility for the preparation of the following report has been that of the senior author. As principle investigator of the project, the senior author developed the theoretical precepts upon which the project had been based; supervised the development of the training model: and initiated the programs through which daily activities occured and data concerning these activities were gathered.

The body of this report is divided into two parts. In Part I, Heiny presents the general schemes of the Field Teacher Training Model as well as the methods and procedures employed in its development. Part II is devoted to supporting concepts of the Field Teaching Model and analyses: Chapter III examines the role special education plays in developing the field teaching model; Chapter IV outlines the social science model of handicaps; Chapter V presents an anlysis of the model's development, and Chapter VI presents the issues, propositions and hypotheses which make up the Field Teacher Training Model for preventing handicapping conditions. This model, in short (to paraphrase a cliché) requests the field teacher trainee as well as other human service workers to "Do unto persons, who are at-risk of becoming considered as handicapped and socially stigmatized, as you would have others do unto your own family."

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INTRODUCTION

The field teaching training program is a set of planned activities designed to prepare professionals to prevent and reduce handicapping conditions. Field teaching is professional action intended to maintain pluralistic democratic patterns in educational practice. It is one phase of a continuing effort to acknowledge systematically that education is a means to ends determined by each individual; thus, field teaching is part of the tradition in education directed toward social reconstruction which will allow for such individual ends to be considered appropriate. The training program is a formalized socialization package designed to sensitize educators to social aspects of handicaps, especially as group processes and functions lead to the assignment of one person to stigmatized statuses such as "handicapped," "alienated," or "unproductive." The field teaching training program is a systematically intellectualized assemblage of value orientations, patterns of actions, identified resources, and personal tasks which introduce novice and experienced educators to prevention of handicaps through social change.

Tradition of Social Reconstruction

Field teaching is part of the tradition in education and the social sciences in which reconstruction of society is an acknowledged end. Since earliest history, educators and their precursors have transmitted ideas and patterns of thinking which contribute to the way nations grow, work is defined, and religions are merged. Field teaching continues the kind of work in which Samual Gridley Howe, Dorothea Dix, and Jane Addams engaged, namely, identifing a human need, developing a way to meet the need, and soliciting recognition and support for these activities. Howe started schools for the retarded in this country, Dix focused public attention upon the lack of service facilities for the mentally ill, and Addams established a pattern of neighborhood services which allowed immigrants to form their own reference groups and to merge only as much as they wanted with the dominant social order. These functions of starting, focusing, and establishing new social forms are targets for field teachers.

Academicians yesterday and today have called for social reconstruction. Comte, known as the father of sociology, formulated a positivist position which called for the systematic study of groups in order to know how to change these groups. This position led to a disciplined study of relationships among social policy, social intervention, and scholarship. Zurcher and Bonjean (1970) reported that these relationships were debated recently in heated national meetings of professional societies such as the American Sociological Association, the American Political Science Association, the American Historical Association, the American Psychological Association, and the American Philosphical Association. Similar movements have been observed among a minority of members of the Council on Exceptional Children and the American Association on Mental Deficiency. Although the explicit debate has focused upon topics of the day such as the Vietnam war and inflation, the underlying issue has been the extent to which professional practices should be in support of an employing organization and the extent to which practices should be in support of clients' stated needs (when these two positions are perceived as dissimilar). Routinely, and for reasons congruent with organizational principles, the majority of professionals support organizations in the name of meeting client needs. A minority of professionals either challenge the validity of such "establishment" positions and/or generate "alternatives." In sociology, C. Wright Mills is a frequent referent for the minority; Philip M. Hauser articulates the views of majority. They both agree and disagree on major points:

> Both men manifest concern for human suffering. But while Hauser feels that value judgments concerning human problems and suffering are incompatible with the role of social scientist, Mills argues that no social scientist can or should operate without them. Whereas Mills sees the social scientist at once being and acting as citizen, scholar, researcher, and actionist, Hauser sees those roles as separate, and self-defeating if simultaneously enacted. Mills urges social scientists to take positions on social, economic, and political issues, to create "publics" for rational discourse, and directly to influence the wielders of power and the makers of policy. Hauser contends that it is not the role of the social scientist or his professional organization to take such positions unless they are concerned with threats to the effective functioning of the discipline (Zurcher and Bonjean, p.3).

Contemporary counterparts to the traditional and interventionist positions exist within efforts to educate the handicapped. These positions might be illustrated most clearly by distinguishing between those who give priority to means and those to ends.

Priority to means. A current fad in special education and other human services is that extensive control may be obtained by one person over another's behavior through the management of consequences. Extensive effort is generated to refine this tool to allow for precise manipulations of behavior for any purpose selected. This is an example of what Farber, Harvey and Lewis (1968) and Farber and Lewis (1972) termed *progressive status quoism* because refinements are made on "how" people are changed rather than "what" the changes mean to the ones being changed or to their kin. Reports of the contingency management position permeate *Exceptional Children* and the *Journal of Applied Analysis of Behavior*; observations of the trend also are available by monitoring methods classes offered in colleges, especially where various forms of S-R principles are the only ones considered relevant for serious presentation, and where inquiry methods are the butts of jokes. Jones and MacMillan (1974) suggested that special education is in a transition to becoming a better profession because of this elaborated tool, popularly known as behavior modification. Other professionals take pride in the high degree of technical proficiency they have developed in modifying others' behaviors and expend effort in developing a technology consistent with traditional Calvinist ideology and existing bureaucratic practices generally used in public and private settings.

From this perspective, handicaps are a problem of the individual. Handicaps are ameliorated by changing the person so his behavior conforms more closely to dominant behavior patterns. Prevention of handicaps is shaping behavior early in the subject's life so it does not become aberrant in the first place. Such shaping occurs by manipulating the immediate environment of the subject, especially those things which occur just before and just after behavior is exhibited. Behavior modification is concerned with "how" in the here-and-now. The strategy is to reduce a situation to its smallest manipulable parts and to control those parts which control another's behavior. This technique is especially effective with children, and those with limited behavioral repertoires and experience. From this perspective education equals behavior change; special education equals behavior change of stigmatized members of a population and/or those who do not change readily in "normal schooling" situations.

Priority to ends. By contrast, another contemporary fad exists where a learner is introduced to a situation and allowed to discover principles of life through asking questions and through trial-and-error. The methods used are similar to but not exactly like those practiced by scientists in the development of knowledge. Ideally, the learning situation is defined by the learner. The teacher structures interest areas using crude approximations of sales appeal techniques, but does not exert additional coercion. Learning is the goal or end. "What" is learned is identifiable analytically as a self concept of a successful inquirer, a schema for searching out unknowns, and an understanding of how to define a situation to meet personal growth objectives.

Bruner (1960), Hendrix (1961) and Suchman (1961) discussed learning by discovery as a way to identify concepts and principles about everyday phenomena. This method includes:

> helping learners get at the structure, or at the laws and principles of a subject, by allowing them to discover these laws and principles through intensive exploration of concrete instances; withholding verbalization of the basic principles until they are understood operationally and used intuitively; defining the process of learning as an active organization and reorganization of mental schemata with which to process information and to perceive relationships; strengthening the process of inference, that is, the process of going beyond that which is given. (Taba, 1965, p. 178)

Summerhill and the British Open Schools, as well as the University of Illinois Committee on School Mathematics, are notable examples of discovery/inquiry processes being the core of the school program.

From this perspective, handicaps are issues of the setting. Handicaps are ameliorated by changing the setting or altering policies governing the use of materials and space so learners will use it as they want. Prevention of handicaps involves changing attitudes, values, and organizational policy and structures to allow for such personal choices to occur without prejudice. Such changes occur through consciousness-raising discussions; mentoring, i.e., use of Rogers' (1968) principle that a teacher is a master learner; facilitating advocate groups for negotiating representative policy; and supplying materials and space so that experiments and other forms of trial-and-error and creative, artistic activities may be performed. Related contemporary practices also exist whereby facts and skills developed in specialized situations such as a university laboratory are disseminated for public use. The primary model for this practice is the agricultural extension program developed and implemented by land-grant universities. New tools, such as a field corn fertilizer, are released to the public; university people tell and show farmers how to use it, and identify ways to change the tool even further to meet the needs of the farmer. In education, storefront schools, extension programs, and university research centers demonstrate elaborations of such development-dissemination practices available for supplying new facts and adapting them for public use.

Orientation of Field Teaching

Field teaching is based upon principles developed in the social sciences, especially those principles which allow for a critical understanding of and action in public situations. These principles include but are not restricted to: (a) human behavior results from an individual trying to fit the expectations of significant others; (b) each person is a member of a primary reference group which provides a social identity; (c) learning is the internalizing of values and attitudes associated with these groups; (d) skills are developed by each member to conduct activities expected of them; and (e) many reference groups exist, some of which have expectations that conflict with the expectations of an individual's primary reference group.

Field teaching is designed to prevent handicaps. Handicaps are labels comprised of pejorative summative evaluations and judgments about the preceived fit of a group member's actual or projected actions and appearances with group expectations. Prevention occurs through intervention into group and cross group expectations, attitudes and values.

Intervention allows relevant group members, i.e., labeled person, family representative, and cross group members (labeler-employer, mental health department consultant) to state and, if necessary, negotiate for public support in meeting the stigmatized person's needs. Intervention can also take the form of T.V. advertising about similarities between stigmatized and non-stigmatized people, critiquing actions of public officials in the conduct of their offices, and fostering the development of groups which agree to support specific learning patterns and situations for their members. Types of learning fostered include (1) traditional code breaking of the three-R's when teachers are invited by the head of the family instead of in school-prescribed place and time, (2) accommodating and changing school organizational patterns so that more exploratory experiences might be conducted by learners without prejudice (learning the school hustle of building and classroom managers), (3) relating formalistic learning patterns to social realities of non-school settings, and (4) using formalistic tools (teacher materials and instruction techniques) to manage personal, individual learning.

Field teaching activities are operated in concert with volunteer parent groups known as community advocate councils. These groups are fostered by field teachers. The councils' goal is to obtain a fair share of public resources for use in the raising of their children in their belief system and life style. These field teaching activities are popularly known as community organizing, and are part of the Jeffersonian tradition of democratic politics and of the Dewey tradition of pragmatism.

Plan of this Report

This report is designed as an introduction to one systematic way to socialize a professional as an educator. The report consists of three related parts, each part including two or more related subparts about learning to be a teacher, about what field teaching means, and about what field teachers learn.

Part I is the field teaching training model. This part consists of a description of the model and the way in which the model was formalized. The model is based on philosophical concepts of choice points, priority statements, and issues. The empirical world consists of a plurality of values, norms, goals, and tasks, resulting in an irrational situation where choices are required. The forced-choice situation yields several issues which, when resolved, yield explanations and justifications for some forms of human variation being called handicaps. Resolves to these issues are inhibitors or facilitators to the life chances of group members. No single definition of handicap exists, nor does any single technique or strategy prevent their existence. Rather, handicaps exist as a result of the plurality of the empirical world. A vision of the social world as associated with accumulated facts about social institutions allows consideration of the relativity and arbitrariness of judgments concerning the appropriateness of one group member's actions by other members or other groups.

Field teacher trainees learn to discuss these ideas and to relate them through words and practices to social criticism, community organizing, and group functioning. These relationships are associated with cognitive and affective domains through coursework, field practice, case studies, and through outlining and defending a personal learning program. The basic model is to learn by doing while recognizing what the relative quantity and quality of that learning/doing offers for the life chances of people called handicapped. This model and the rest of the project were conducted with assistance from a National Advisory Board and National Working Committee. Early thoughts and critiques were presented in two issues of the Peabody Journal of Education and several short-term prototype projects were used to check the usefulness of the formal thinking.

Part II is a presentation of supporting concepts and analyses of field teaching and the training model. A social science model of processes, roles, statuses, and organizations is related to handicaps; the major relationship being that exceptional children, including the handicapped, are made, not born. They are the product of social processes used to resolve social issues about who gets what and to which advantage. A critique of psychology and education of exceptional children is concluded by suggesting that most contemporary professional literature has lost its usefulness for social reformist conceptions of social justice because it does not provide a framework for understanding what constitutes social exceptionality, i.e., which relevant relationships exist between variation in human development and organization of normal everyday life. A paradigm for analysis of exceptionalities, a brief historical review, and an outline of three models of handicaps are presented as one framework to provide such understandings. Elaborations including a taxonomy, of this framework describe field teaching as social action. Main characteristics of the taxonomy are that social organizations are both the locus and focus of field teacher actions, and that such actions are intended to produce a redistribution of power toward more direct support for human differences. Several propositions are outlined about relationships between a learner (stigmatized person) and social organizations.

Part III consists of the appendices. They include an introduction to issues which are resolved in ways which "make handicaps," an ideal field teacher training program curriculum, a curriculum planning sequence description, a set of readings, an elaborated description of a paradigm for analysis of exceptionalities, a list of readings about the mentally retarded as members of a surplus population and summary statement of the two Peabody Journal of Education feature sections on field teaching.

CHAPTER I

FIELD TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM MODEL

The model of the field teacher training program is a conceptual base for preparing educators to work as social change agents who give priority to preventing handicaps. This model is constructed around choices which constitute parameters of decision making processes for specifying people and their behaviors as "different." The choices given priority in the training sequence are identified in the field teacher model as issues. More specifically, the field teacher training program includes ways for apprentices to understand professional and popular knowledge about human differences and about how these differences are used to the advantage of some and the disadvantage of other people. This program is designed to assist apprentices to develop a personal and professional style to accommodate this understanding. The graduating apprentice, having enrolled in this program, will be a self-initiating and self-reinforcing individual concerned with the welfare, rights, and responsibilities of people; will be able to identify and describe social problems as they relate to handicaps; will be skilled in the collection and use of data relevant to identified problems; and will be influential in the development of practical resolutions to defined problems, especially to preventing handicaps.

The product of the field teacher training program will be a social change agent who is continuously in the process of becoming a contributing member of society by giving priority to assisting others to make decisions concerning their own life chances, their local community, and the formal organizations in which they participate. These graduates will be employable in various agencies, including churches, social services, prisons, juvenile courts, and/or will be prepared with an action-oriented liberal arts background to begin graduate work. The training model depends upon existing field stations, termed Neighborhood Learning Centers (NLCs), upon a Program to provide social sceince based definitions of handicaps, and upon activities designed to prevent handicaps from occurring.

Preventing handicaps is the dependent variable in this model. In order to understand optional actions which are logically available for this prevention, basic conditions (context, motivations, and resources) should be explicated in relation to philosophical, empirical and pragmatic inquiries. Primary conditions under which this model of apprentice training operates are presented as (1) philosophical and conceptual foundations, and (2) theoretical foundations of training. The model of field teacher training is based upon these foundations and follows these presentations.

Philosophical and Conceptual Foundations

Philosophical and conceptual foundations for the training of field teachers rests in knowledge and practices about individual human differences and social systems. Social scientific study of these differences, in the sense of applying a specialized approach to studying life, is of relatively recent origin. Because it is relatively new, the body of scientific thought about differences and systems is less well-known and less well-organized than old wives-tales, superstitions, and common sense conceptions about people who call attention to themselves.

Since the social scientific study of handicaps is young, no scientific agreement exists about general or specific concepts, vocabulary, theories of causation, needs, or treatment. For that matter, no scientific agreement exists as to whom if anyone is handicapped.

In spite of the lacking areas of agreement, some common elements do exist. These elements are the issues which not only delineate polar choices about ideas underlying concepts and practices concerning handicaps, but also serve as the basis by which choices are combined to construct explanations and predictions about social and personal functions of handicaps. Issues are conflicting ways of conceptualizing phenomena observed in daily life and are rooted in a view that life and the world are basically irrational, at least as far as available human understanding and control are concerned.

A conceptual component of this irrationality is the empirical fact of a plurality of values, norms, goals, and tasks being available for social action at any given point in time and place. This plurality results in numerous values and ultimate goals being generated by people, and thus being available for selection.

Another component is that this plurality requires choices among values, norms, goals, and tasks to be made at any one time and place. Choices require a rejection of some or most values, norms, goals and tasks. Rejection might be either total or partial, but either way, choices require attention be directed toward a limited number of the multiple alternatives available. Choosing or selecting values and goals becomes a matter of resolving a conflict; an antagonism of values exists and is likely irreconcilable (Weber, 1947).

Weber (1947) addresses the existence of issues only indirectly, but implicitly through considering the process of rationalization in a complex social and historical context. Rationalization is a method for stating a rule of observed patterned life phenomena, such as 2X2=4. Freund (1968) summarizes Weber's ideas about rationalization by stating that it occurs "through a division and coordination of activities on the basis of an exact study of men's relations with each other, with their tools and their environment, for the purpose of achieving greater efficiency and productivity" (p. 18). Parsons (1947) suggests that the context of meaning "refers to a plurality of elements which form a coherent whole on the level of meaning" (p. 95). Weber (1947) suggests that several possible modes of meaningful relations between elements such as logical consistency, the esthetic harmony of a style of music, or the appropriateness of means to an end exist. By contrast, motivational understanding of acts such as outbursts of anger provoked by jealousy, injured pride, or an insult are attributed to affectual determinants and are derived from irrational motives. Both observational and explanatory understandings, whether associated with rational motivation or affective irrationality, are contrasted with ideal types. Ideal or pure types are a theoretically conceived set of meanings attributed to hypothetical actors in a given situation. Ideal types do not "refer to an objectively 'correct' meaning or one which is true in some metaphysical sense" (Weber, 1947, p. 89), but differences between understandings and ideal types are attributed to irrationality. Irrationality has its source (a) in affective life, (b) in an individual's relationship to power, (c) in expressions of chance and unforseeable circumstances, and (d) in ethical irrationality. Thus irrationality and plurality are two parts of the same situation, and both are conceptual bases for the existance of conflicts in ideal and actual social action.

Common issues

Irrationality, as related to handicaps, is posited as being demonstrated by selected issues which are not resolved to general agreement by scientific knowledge, professional practice, or theoretical formulation. Resolves of these issues regarding handicaps are seen as politically relevant decisions selected because of a predisposition to answers for ambiguous situations. (See Merton (1957) for a summary of the Adorno study and the relationship between political disposition and decision making-ambiguity resolving.) Five issues comprise common elements which cut across the disagreements not resolved by scientific knowledge, theoretical formulations, or professional and lay practices.

Human variation presents a predicament or a dilemma in conducting routine social actions. One resolve to this issue is to provide a rank order of necessary supports for various human differences. Another is to declare certain variations as qualitatively different from others and to treat them according to their differences rather than their similarities.

Handicaps are related to public issues of social structure or to personal troubles of milieu. One resolve to this issue is to analyze human variation as it relates to social structure, and to interpret these relationships as being part of a social system. Another resolve is to analyze human variation as it relates to personal structure and to interpret these relationships as being properties of the individual.

Handicaps are related to theory building, empirical research, or professional-clinical practice. One resolve to this issue is to suggest that these three activities are different orders of the same reality. For example, theories such as those relating mental retardation to repertoire building (Bijou, 1966) are ways to summarize and interpret empirical research findings and are ways to direct professional actions. Another resolve to this issue is to suggest that these three activities are competing orders for considering the same level of reality. For example, a decision must be made whether to expend energy and resources toward theory building, empirical research findings, or professional-clinical practicing, assuming that all three need not or will not be equally supportable.

Handicaps are a concern of the nature or the nurture of the organism or its behavior (human being). One resolve to this issue is to attribute handicaps to human variation and then to proceed to try reducing the probability of that variation occurring again or to attribute handicaps to social systems and then to try changing a system. Another resolve is to take the existence of human variation as givens, and then to attribute handicaps to the way these variations are supported by the individual behavior or by social system action.

Handicaps are related to ethics of responsibility or ethics of conviction. One resolve is to bear in mind what is possible and the most suitable means (such as contingency management) for achieving a desired end. Another resolve to this issue is to adopt a principle (such as that associated with normalization) and to adhere to that principle with the single purpose of applying it to all situations. The first resolve is a means-commitment which establishes the kind of responsibility to others which is accepted through social action. The second resolve is an ends-commitment which establishes a goal to be achieved.

Issues about human differences and their functions are reviewed as items in the sociology of knowledge. Weber (1947) suggests that human behavior may be understood through the use of a methodology which includes the construction and comparison of ideal types and observational understandings (aktuelles Verstehen) of the subjective meaning of a given act. An example of observational understanding is the noting of a verbal utterance that 2 X 2 = 4 when it is heard or read. It is further suggested that understanding may also occur as an explanation of a given act. Explanatory understanding is "attained if we know that he is engaged in balancing a ledger or in making a scientific demonstration, or is engaged in some other task of which this particular act would be an appropriate part" (p. 95). From this perspective, human exceptionality is problematic, not given. Standard training programs for special educators are a matter of reviewing research reports, genetic code charts, instructional technology, and administrative practices related to the sociology, psychology, and education of exceptional individuals. In addition, the program of a field teacher apprentice reviews the social uses of each of these fragmented reports and procedures are reviewed to develop an understanding of how reports and procedures are employed as a means of increasing or decreasing the daily life chances of community members: children and parents as well as interested merchants, professionals, financiers, and politicians.

This review of life chances, their social knowledge base, their social structure implications, and their social action alternatives is inconclusive; no solution is suggested or demonstrated. A superficial knowledge of history is all that is required to demonstrate that final solutions are the property of social institutions such as politics (e.g., Hitler's final solution to maintain Aryan superiority was to exterminate people of Jewish ancestry) and religion (e.g., Christ preached a mixture of love, obedience, and tolerance which his followers have dogmatized, ritualized, and institutionalized in order to gain access to heaven) not of scientifically based education. The relationship between psychology, education, and handicaps is that the former two are tools for understanding and controlling the third. For pragmatic purposes, the ends of understanding and controlling are not necessary to usher in a new millennium or a period of happiness or beneficial government to be enjoyed by all. Pragmatic ends for some people include attempting to reduce social and moral injustices; for others they are to gain or to maintain material or spiritual advantage over other people. The field teacher training program includes a review of logical and axiological structures of such means and ends used by members of society, thus introducing the apprentice to a demonstration of the limited, fragmented, and superstition-bound social attempts which determine who shall survive and in which manner.

Since no single road leads to a single definition of handicap, for either the scholar or for the apprentice, an element of arbitrariness exists in any author's choice of design for a study of an undefined, but actively functioning field of professional interest: handicapped people. Field teaching is frankly one-sided about handicaps. No pretense is made that field teaching activities or ways of representing daily life stand alone as guidance to those who want to make critical acquaintance with the social science of handicaps. Field teachers must supplement their understanding of the daily life of the handicapped with understanding other people's primary purposes for considering human variation as important for study or other action. Thus, each apprentice develops a point of departure in addition to their own limited experiences. Such external referents lead the serious student of handicaps and social change to additional literature and thinking beyond those based in their own thinking and actions. With the diversity of available referents, merit is claimed for cultivating a pluralistic approach in field teaching rather than trying to mix, in eclectic fashion, a variety of approaches which do not provide any systematic basis for understanding results of attempts to prevent or ameliorate handicaps. The pluralistic approach used gives priority to non-school, non-classroom aspects of handicaps and other social phenomena.

By stepping away from the daily concerns of the classroom it is possible to identify several key variables which may directly influence what occurs in the classroom, and which may be more powerful in determining the life chances of children than anything a single teacher accomplishes within classroom walls. Field teaching is the result of efforts to surmount difficulties in making objective judgement in order to aid each student of child growth and development to form a vision of handicaps as part of a social world.

Priorities

Social vision requires simplification or even oversimplification of the world as it is commonly known and experienced. This can be achieved in several distinct ways: first, by considering society from an individual's point of view; second, by considering society as a related set of social institutions such as family, religion, politics, and economics; and third, by considering society to be that which is studied through specified methods by social scientists. In field teaching, all three methods are considered, but are arranged in different priorities to accomplish different ends at different times.

Highest priority in the arrangement of.field teaching is given to understanding society, and thereby meanings associated with facts developed through specified methods of science and presented in the psychology and education of the handicapped. Scientific methods and logic are given precedence in studying society because they are the most rational way humans have devised to identify effective techniques to solve problems which are defined. Neither science nor technology necessarily provides the basis for solving all common everyday problems. One feature of the field teacher training program is that opportunities to develop a scientific understanding of the everyday world, including problem definitions, are stressed.

Second highest priority in field teaching is given to understanding society as a constellation of social institutions. Social institutions are categories of daily activities of members of society which are used for understanding variations in what is considered important to maintain collective action by human beings. Social institutions are the context within which scientific studies of the individual and where social action called prevention of handicaps are conducted. This context provides the basis for socially relevant meanings being assigned to particular behaviors exhibited by human subjects and by professional people and social change agents.

Third priority in field teaching is given to considering society from an individual's viewpoint. Although the individual's life chances are the stated reason for the existence of social institutions, once such rhetoric is expressed, little is known or agreed about what should be done with the individual's perspective. Therefore, in order to proceed into unknown territory with an unknown group of people, field teaching is designed so that each member of society may review the individual perspective independent of the first two priorities.

Other arrangements of priorities of science, social context, and personal growth might be developed by individuals who use the same information contained in the field teacher model. Presenting alternative arrangements seems cumbersome and non-instructive at this time.

Each person attempting to master the body of information about handicaps is encouraged to rearrange the above priorities so that their learning needs are met as best as possible within the framework of a professional training program. Since each apprentice field teacher is most likely to be registered for additional course work and/or maintaining direct responsibility for some educational development of some child, relatively limited introspection will provide "gut level" understanding of the basic limitations imposed by the priorities used in this and other approaches to preventing handicaps in humans. Such introspective information should provide each person with the opportunity to explore how others have handled the pragmatics of learning to consider and reconcile apparent deficiencies in the care and treatment of the handicapped.

Theoretical Foundations of Training

In organizing a field teacher training model, social systems approaches consistent with constructs of field teaching are taken. The effect of these approaches is to allow for training to be based upon field practice as well as upon lecture-discussion instruction. The writings of Furfey (1954), Parsons (1966) Rogers (1969) Alinski (1946) serve as heuristic devices for explaining the relevance of these two training foci in the field teacher training model. They are heuristic rather than theoretical bases because separately and combined they are only approximate conceptual roots of the multidimensional field teaching practices.

Furfey (1954) suggests that several levels of understandings and of decisions need to be made in order to examine society. Since field teachers examine society and act according to results of their observations, Furfey's model seems instructive in differentiating various decisions made during the examination process. His model is a vertical arrangement of various choices which must be made in order to understand their influence on social action, including attempts to prevent handicaps.

1. The most abstract level considers logic (systematic study of rules of order) and axiology (systematic study of value judgments) as two independent and necessary components for understanding and explaining society. For those concerned with handicapping conditions, decisions made at this level include the extent to which formal logic

and axiology are to be used as foundations for scientific and pragmatic social action and people changing.

2. The next most abstract level considers a combination of selected rules of order and selected value judgments of value priorities which ultimately outline the rules which are used for studying society. The technical name for this level of understanding society is metasociology. For those concerned with handicapping conditions, decisions made at this meta-level result in rules of scientific methods and of pragmatic action being outlined. Decisions are made about the establishment of priorities concerning what is to be examined. Future decisions controlled by the rules made at this level include how these studies are to be conducted, what is already known about the situation without further systematic observation, and which general actions are to be taken after the study is completed. For example, a decision may be made to review cognitive functioning of children, to review behavioral repitoire, or to study psychodynamic activity of the child. Specific means to study these functions will be directed by what is to be studied.

3. The third most abstract level is the actual study of society. The technical name for this level of understanding of society is sociology, the systematic study of social institutions as collective phenomena. For those concerned with handicapping conditions, decisions made at this level provide the context for interpreting direct observations to be made in any study. These interpretations may give priority to physical disabilities sometimes called handicaps. These disabilities and handicaps may be considered as social

phenomena resulting from the way society is structured or as individualistic phenomena resulting from the way individuality is structured. Decisions made at this level result in outlining observational procedures, data compression procedures, categorization procedures, phenomena-analytic procedures, and reporting procedures.

Parsons (1966) outlines a hierarchy of control and influence to suggest relationships which exist among values, norms, goals, and tasks. Within his paradigm, values are the most general consideration for understanding action. Values not only determine which norms are developed and thus integrate actions, but also determine which tasks will be conducted in such a way as to attain goals. Goals, then, establish norms and, thus, maintain patterns of social action known as social institutions. The arrangement of values as determining norms, goals, and tasks is called a hierarchy of control. The reverse order of the hierarchy of control is called a hierarchy of influence. Several features of Parson's hierarchies are relevant to the training program for field teachers who attempt to prevent handicaps: (a) concerns for goal attainment and tasks give priority to the individual over collective behavior; (b) concerns for normative patterns and values give priority to collective over individual behavior; (c) social action may be generated through either the hierarchy of influence or the hierarchy of control; and (d) training programs for field teachers provide for intellectual understanding and practical skill in working with all four functions of social action and with both hierarchies.

The work of Rogers (1968) has been incorporated into the training program by explicitly acknowledging that field teachers must develop a learning style which will allow them to constantly deal with change and acquire the information necessary to understand what they observe. As Rogers states, "A way must be found to develop a climate in the system in which the focus is not upon teaching, but on the facilitation of self-directed learning" (p. 304).*

Alinsky (1946), in describing the need for community, grassroots organizations, makes a case for individuals being involved actively in the causes and beliefs which they espouse and, further, that action be concerned with broad issues, "that there is no such thing as a single problem, that all problems are inter-related, that all issues are part of a chain of human issues..." (p. 216). These two points are incorporated into the training program by including informed, direct experience in the field, where priority is given to macroscopic social rather than microscopic individual change.

Thus, the training program for field teachers gives priority to self-directing students, who integrate academic information and field experiences as the information and experiences are related to social structure, social action, and social change. The program model is based on a systemic rather than an individualistic approach, and is used to foster understanding and manipulation of what Mills (1959) calls public issues of social structure rather than personal troubles of milieu.

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* Emphases in original

Training Program Model

The training program model for field teaching is a representation of attempts by college people to increase the probability that apprentices will demonstrate competencies related to preventing handicaps. Prevention is conducted through use of information and practices associated with social aspects of handicaps. The training program model serves two functions: (a) to rank order selected learnings which are to occur in the program; and (b) to represent relationships between the training program, social action/change, and preventing handicaps. The ideal training program model is divided into two parts consisting of academic contents and field application of the contents. Learning, teaching and courses in the field teacher training model are for purposes of representing content and processes leading to social initiation and change. Primary processes are systematically observing, interpreting, and integrating ideas and experiences in a complex world.

The training model is, in effect, a set of interlocking models which form subcomponents of the total unit. The first component consists of EXPLANATORY STATEMENTS about relationships among independent and dependent variables in the training program. The second component consists of DIRECTIONS for planning an individualized learning program for an apprentice in the training program. A Curriculum Planning Profile Flow Chart is the name for these directions. The third component consists of the SUBSTANCE of the training program, and is called a Taxonomy of Social Aspects of

Handicaps. The fourth component consists of details of RELATIONSHIPS between affective and cognitive domain changes and is represented in an Instruction-Learning Process Diagram. (The reviewer of these components should attempt to pose as an apprentice encountering the social aspects of handicaps for the first time. Such a pose will provide an intuitive basis for acknowledging the importance of outlining processes as well as substance and product aspects of the training program.)

The critical concern addressed in assembling the training model was to devise a way to represent thinking and attitudes associated with a multifaceted, nonlinear view of social action. This view is complicated when pluralistic value orientations are presented as substantive issues which underlie the very idea of handicaps. The resolve to this situation was to give priority to social science research in processes and expectations for field teacher apprentices. This research orientation allows for the lack of necessity for a single statement about the soundness or adequacy of any resolve to any of the issues. The use of research findings does provide variation in the quality and quantity of information available for making professional decisions about the social origin and maintenance of handicaps. Situations exist when professional decisions are based on tentative research conclusions; other situations almost require a guarantee of highly reliable and demonstrated validity of conclusions to be considered even before a decision is made. If the need for knowledge is great (as in deciding color of research faculty office walls) and the risk to personal development and safety is relatively low, then conclusions can be accepted and used despite weaknesses in procedures used to generate these conclusions. On the other hand, if the risk to the dependent subject/client/student/citizen is great (as in not providing fire escapes from a third floor school building), then conclusions based upon anything but the strongest data available is inexcusable and challengeable as malpractice. Once the apprentice understands the relative strengths and weaknesses of research procedures and the various ways of reporting the results of these procedures, the practicing field teacher is in a strong position to translate research based conclusions into practical terminology and to adapt situations and conclusions until a "good fit" is achieved.

Explanatory statements. Explanations of the field teaching training model and of apprentices' actions and learning are represented by nested boxes such as those called "Chinese boxes". The different size boxes represent different variables which influence the social meanings attached to different aspects of field teaching. The primary dependent variables in explaining field teaching training are associated with the cognitive and the affective domains of human behavior.

The cognitive domain in this program is associated with priority being given to the acquisition and/or use of knowledge and skills related to human growth, human organizational patterns, and potential for growth and organization. Assessment of the cognitive domain is through verbal demonstration (oral and written) of understanding the facts and interpretations associated with social aspects of handicaps.

The affective domain in this program is associated with priority being given to the internalization of norms and values encountered while acquiring and using the cognitive domain. Assessment of the affective domain is through exhibited behavior which demonstrates a personal style for using the skills and knowledge associated with the cognitive domain.

The development of each of these domains and of their interaction is controlled by the independent variables of curriculum planning, curriculum content, and instruction-learning procedures. Curriculum planning is the sequence of activities followed in order to rationalize and maximize the opportunity for specific learning to occur. This sequence gives priority to management by objectives techniques and task analysis logic. Curriculum content which gives priority to social-collective perspectives, is the substance studied and the actions initiated when considering prevention of handicaps. Instruction-learning procedures are the action elements in this model. Instruction is model (person model or symbolic model such as verbalizations in writing or lecture) initiated activity; learning is apprentice initiated activity whether imitative or original in patterns, substance, or results.

Insert Chart 1
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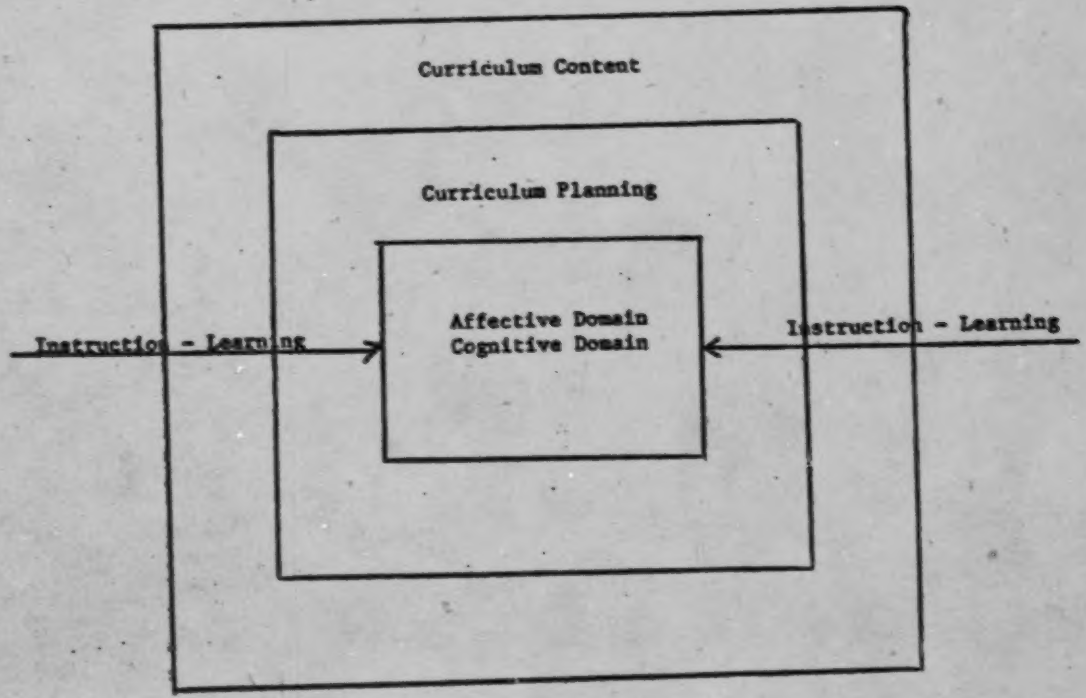
CHART 1

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT DIAGRAM:
CHINESE BOXES

(Nested ideas/processes/knowledge)


Curriculum Content
Curriculum Planning
Affective Domain
Cognitive Domain
Instruction - Learning
Instruction - Learning

The interaction among these variables is designed to change and/or certify changes in rank order of skills and knowledge related to the social aspects of handicaps and the prevention of handicaps through the use of these tools. Instruction provides opportunity for specific learnings to occur; instruction-learning substance is outlined in curriculum content; instruction-learning processes are outlined in curriculum planning sequence.

Directions. Directions for proceeding through the field teacher training program are outlined as a Curriculum Planning Profile (See Appendix A). The profile is a flow chart representing decision criteria for developing an individualized learning program for each apprentice. Developing a learning program consists of three multistaged components which can be identified as: Curricular Planning Sequence, Table I, Development of Career and Course Objectives, Table II, and Selection of Field Work and Related Program of Study, Table III.

An apprentice begins the training program with his statement of career goals and consultation with faculty members regarding appropriate competencies required to achieve these goals. After the apprentice has stated his career goals and required competencies, he enters another phase, Development of Career and Course Objectives, by completing a statement of career goals in behavioral terms.

Using his career goals, the apprentice develops a proposed course of study and a statement of field work activities for his entire program which is presented to a faculty advisor for review, clarification, and approval/nonapproval. If the program of study and the statement of field work activities, accompanied by a rationale and defense, are approved, the apprentice, in consultation with faculty, employs the Selection of Field Work and Related Program of Study to determine the means (which courses, which task groups, and which field projects) he will use semester-by-semester to complete the training program. At the end of each semester, the apprentice reviews the means employed during that semester and revises the Selection of Field Work and Related Program of Study as necessary and appropriate.

Through the Profile process and its decision points, the apprentice must state his choices, develop a rationale for his choices and defend the choices. The making of choices, developing of a rationale and defending the choices is an integral learning embedded in the operation of the training program and increased competence in self-direction and decision-making is a requisite for continuance.

Substance. The substance of the field teaching training program is outlined as Program Content, Curriculum Content, and Criterion Measures. One primary core of the substance which cuts across all three of these components is the posing and resolving of issues related to the social aspects of handicaps. These issues are the result of imperfect knowledge and the political use of this imperfection. A second primary core is understanding theories and accumulated research facts as well as related practices associated with social aspects of handicaps. Major theories, facts and practices are identified through the use of the Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities (Heiny, 1969; See Appendix B). The third primary core of the training program concerns methods for problem solving, including how to pose and test hypotheses and how to pose and answer empirical questions. The hypotheses and questions are ways to reach tentative resolves to issues resulting from differing opinions and facts about accumulated knowledge and skills about social aspects of handicaps.

The program content includes knowledge drawn from various disciplines which give priority to processes and uses of human growth (intra-personal development) and human interaction (inter-personal organization). The program content involves both the cognitive and affective domains. Field teacher apprentices give priority in their studies to action oriented field research methods, findings, and implications about handicaps.

The cognitive domain of the training program content gives priority to the acquisition and/or use of knowledge and skills related to theories of and research on human growth, human organization patterns, and human potential. Acquisition includes imitative behaviors associated with modeling in social learning theory, with training task behavior associated with experimental learning study procedures, and general socialization associated with broad concepts of human development. Acquisition in this training program is accomplished through (a) regular lecture-discussion-laboratory classes, (b) participant-observation in campus and non-campus activities, and (c) on-the-job training in field stations. Apprentices give priority to field study methods as practiced by ethnologists, organization oriented sociologists, and other social scientists who study humans in their natural-daily settings. Through the use of field study procedures, apprentices identify indices representing people's daily lives reported in the literature and observing these indices in the context of "real" rather than "represented" life. These indices include data about similarities and differences in human growth, interaction, and organization related to personal and social constraints and aids. All apprentices explicitly become familiar with the social fact that individual differences exist, that they understand their place as professionals in identifying the relative importance of certain differences, and that social organizations advantage some people who have certain differences and disadvantage other people with other differences.

The affective domain of the training program content gives priority to the internalization of norms and values encountered while acquiring and using the cognitive inputs. Internalization includes independent initiation or demonstration of selected behaviors as represented in social learning theory, in transfer task behavior associated with experimental learning study procedures, and in general personal actualization associated with broad concepts of human potential. Internalization in this training program is demonstrated through increased proficiency in the analysis and use of concepts and skills associated with social change and prevention of handicaps. Internalization concepts are based on the recognition that field teachers and other social initiators give priority to internal mechanisms of control over their behavior rather than to external, contrived, or "natural" mechanisms. Recognition of the locus of these controls is reported in area papers, face-to-face conversations, and formal meetings of apprentices with other field teachers. Four steps, through an expanding spiral of experiences, describe levels of internalization and understanding of the norms and values associated with field teaching.

1. Conversion. The first stage is a conversion effect to field teaching. Conversion means that a person assumes responsibility for his decisions about his own education and use of time, and that this responsibility will be directed toward social initiation in order to prevent handicaps. Locus of this experience varies with each participant, but apprentices' self reports serve as the basis to suggest that the idea of experimenting in creative, humanistic, and intellectual education is appealing and receives a true-believer commitment. Reasons for the appeal seem to be related to disaffection with traditional, lockstep college education, and with personal concerns such as "Who am I?" and "What is the nature of the world?"
2. Disillusion. The second stage is disillusion with field teaching and/or self. In general, the original appeal of the program is weakened. No longer is field teaching seen as the way to provide a college education, social reform, or prevention of handicaps; no longer is college seen as important enough to continue; or no longer is the individual concerned with continuing to live, or with the nature-needs of the world. Much scapegoating

occurs while seeking external reasons for the lack of realizing the earlier glimpse of life which led to conversion. Frequent references are made to people not fulfilling their commitments, claims of unethical behavior and intellectual self-indulgence, or other such statements intended as pejorative: requests are made for surface changes in the training procedures in order to routinize decision-making and thus avoid establishment of own decision making process. All such efforts focus upon individuals denying responsibility for personal actions or decisions, and continue until the apprentice withdraws from the program, ceases to be actively derogatory about the program, or moves into the third stage.

3. Lame-duck. The third stage is the lame-duck or non-productive portion of the internalization process in field teaching. In general, the person and the world do not relate in a rational, predictable way: nothing seems to go as it is supposed to go. The assumption seems to be made that nothing can be done, so tolerance and/or martyrdom is appropriate. Frequently, clothing styles change to extreme electicism or fastidiousness; conversations are punctuated with statements prejudicial against self or others; a passive acceptance of requests for action occurs, but with a minimum of follow-through; and less frequent contacts are made with

training program people than in the first and last affective stages.

4. Struggle. The fourth stage is one of struggling to find a way to achieve at least an approximation of the conversion ideal. Various ways are tried for conceptualizing and experiencing parts of the physical world and for relating to people. These ways are attempted until a comfortable one is found. Such comfort becomes a "handle" for maintaining personal stability: the creative "ah-ha" takes place, becomes public, and the person returns to the first stage. The return to the first stage is at a different level than initially because of different experiences and understandings about self, others, and the world; therefore, stage four becomes a movement towards becoming a knowledgable field teacher rather than a "true believer" or a "novice convert."

The continual recycling through these stages, plus cognitive growth, produce the major part of the field teaching conception of a geninely EDUCATED PERSON functioning as a social initiatior.

Curriculum content. The ideal curriculum content for field teachers is divided into two parts. These two parts are based upon Hutchin's (1940) suggestion that (a) courses are for the development of scientific theories and procedures which lead to critical thinking, and (b) a person learns by doing, teaches through apprenticeship. Learning, teaching, and courses are for purposes of developing skills in observing, interpeting, and integrating ideas and experiences in a complex world. Field work is available for learning in the sense of using the theories and procedures identified in courses. Accordingly, the field teaching curriculum contains these two aspects.

The first part includes those matters generally associated with traditional academics and with professional training. traditional education from disciplines concerned with human development and interaction constitute most of the content. Trainees enroll in classes in departments (or divisions) of the college in order to obtain relevant academic and professional preparation. All apprentice field teachers must successfully complete sufficient numbers of these courses in order to meet all academic expectations set for university graduates. Thus, students must demonstrate to the faculty and to the administration that they have sufficient background in the natural and social sciences, mathematics, physical and health education, and the humanities to merit being granted a bachelor's degree. Existing traditional academic courses are the primary vehicle for demonstrating these competencies. College wide provisions are made for testing out of particular courses, thereby providing a weak approximation of individualized instruction for each qualified apprentice.

Courses recommended to field teachers give priority to the welfare, rights, and responsibilities of people with whom field teachers work and learn (See Appendix C). Emphasis is placed on social systems analysis, discilpined thought, and planned social intervention especially as they relate to preventing the social conditions of handicapping children and among minority groups. An explicit effort is made to avoid the development of dilettantism in field teachers by requiring them to master disciplined logical thought and the generation and use of objectified data, and to demonstrate through traditional academic means (tests, term papers, oral reports, and examinations) a critical understanding of major principles of human growth, organization, and potential.

A second part of the content for all field teachers relates the traditional academic concepts and skills to the community and to the college campus. In order to facilitate this applied aspect, trainees form Task and Seminar Groups to devote time and energy to integrating objective with subjective views of the world. The integration process also includes field work experience with resources available for understanding and for solving problems outlined by private and public agencies.

Examples of this integration process are described by Janowitz (1969), Milio (1970), Berger and Luckman (1966), Weber (1947), Rogers (1968), and other scholars, as well as by persons writing descriptive materials of college programs for undergraduates at New College, LaVerne College, Colby College, and Tusculum College.

In general, student activities in the training curriculum include extensive use of traditional lecture-discussion classes in academic or professional concerns, and integration activities designed to relate academic with applied situations. Field teacher apprentices are encouraged to learn and use the same methods as behavioral and symbolic interactionists. Methods of participant observation, field note record keeping, collecting and assembling documents, and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data are systemically considered as outlined by Becker (1961), Garfinkel (1960), Filstead (1970), Heiny (1969), Cohen (1955), Powdermaker (1966), and other ethnologists. Field teachers are apprentice behavioral scientists who give priority to "doing something" with the data they are collecting in classes, on field projects, and during other parts of their daily lives. The "doing something" includes both traditional and innovative forms of education which are designed to support people to live better in a participatory democracy. In other words, the field teacher will be neither a researcher who compiles data for its own sake, nor a do-gooder who becomes involved in causes because of an irrational desire to better the world (Filstead, 1970). The field teacher becomes, in effect, able to make rational decisions which are based on objective data and then implement these decisions as change activities. The change activities are based on a) alternatives developed through the information collected, b) an awareness of the community needs, and c) values consistent with pluralistic values that may be held by members of the locale, i,e., the field teacher is a change agent.

Criterion measures used for the content of the training program give priority to demonstrated competencies associated with social problems and social initiation change. Criterion measures are minimum levels of competence to be demonstrated by apprentices.

Competence is the degree of congruence between expected behaviors held by field teachers and exhibited behaviors by apprentices. Apprentice competencies are related to information and practices identified through use of the Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities (PAE). In other words, PAE is the major independent variable in constructing a linear set of criterion measures. Training and practice as they relate to cognition and affection are two sets of dependent variables in this construction.

Insert Chart 2
Here

A cognitive domain criterion check requires a critical knowledge which is demonstrated by presenting for faculty evaluation a typed two-page, double-spaced, summarized analytic literature review. The review considers two or more sides of an issue which exists in the professional literature. Critical knowledge is demonstrated by analyzing (comparing and contrasting) this literature in such a way that one or more resolves to an issue on a given topic are stated.

Instruction-learning processes. Instruction-learning processes are detailed to show relationships between affective and cognitive domains, and the external world of the apprentice. The relationships are represented by a series of concentric cones which form a continuous thread on a worm gear. The sides of the cones represent instruction inputs or vectors. These vectors emanate from both the

CHART 2

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF HANDICAPS:

A Taxonomy of Curriculum Criterion Measures

		Apprentice Competencies (Dependent Varables)			
		Training - Learning (#1)		Practice - Learning (#2)	
		Cognitive	Affective	Cognitive	Affective
Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities (Independent Variable)	View of World	Demonstrate resolve to social issue about whether world is rational, irrational or non-rational	Demonstrate style to lead a lesson in class re type of rational	Demonstrate	Demonstrate style
	Observation sets				

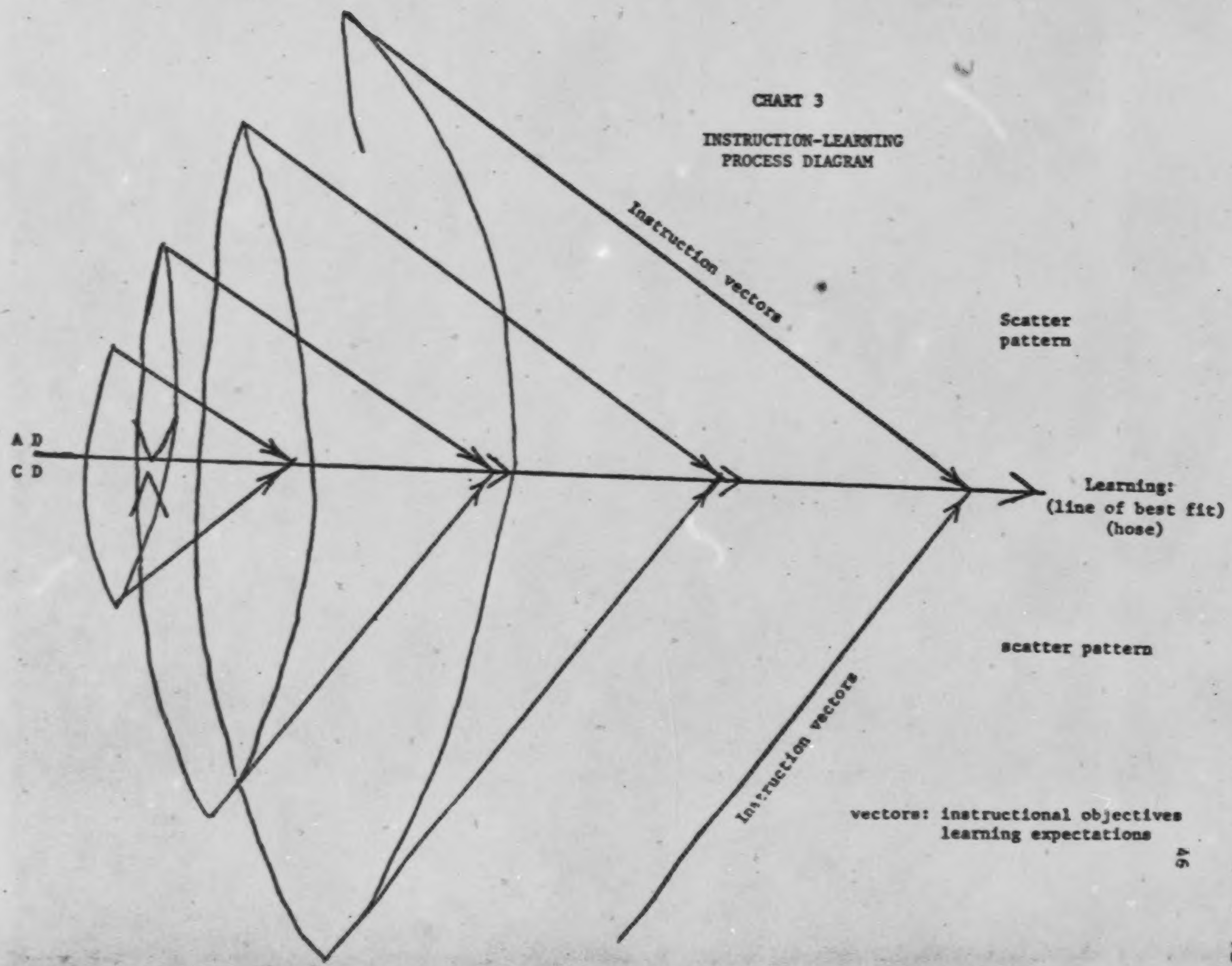
affective and cognitive domain of the curriculum. Affective domain vectors are learning expectations as established by the degree of fit between apprentice and model perceived needs. Cognitive domain vectors are instructional objectives recommended by the apprentice and considered by the model. The interior of the cones between the sides and the centerline represent alternative vectors or optional degrees of fit. The continuous common center of these cones is represented by a flexible cable. The cones increase geometrically in size as the thread moves through time.

Insert Chart 3
Here

The primary process in instruction-learning is represented by concepts such as exchange theory in sociology (Blau, 1967), trial and error learning in experimental psychology (Zeaman and House, 1963), and discovery method in the instruction of gifted people (Hendrix, 1961). Priority in instruction is given to offering an opportunity for an apprentice to imitate and/or initiate a series of affective or cognitive activities which will modify his behavioral repertoire. Each apprentice exchanges an opportunity to model the field teacher in the conduct of already committed responsibilities which will lead to community organization to prevent handicaps. The different concepts drawn from various theories about human interaction are merged systematically through use of

CHART 3

INSTRUCTION-LEARNING
PROCESS DIAGRAM


Instruction vectors
Scatter pattern
A D
C D
Learning:
(line of best fit)
(hose)
scatter pattern
Instruction vectors

vectors: instructional objectives
learning expectations

common scientific methods used for conducting empirical studies. In this way, apprentices act like and thus in fact are junior empirical scientists who give priority in their learnings to ethnomethodology. The object of their learning is understanding how various systems of daily activity increase and decrease the life chances of different people.

Several steps are required to conduct any empirical study, including ethnologies. These steps are one of the cores of the instruction-learning process of the field teacher training program. Gephart and Bartos (1969) suggest that research steps include (a) the structuring of a logical argument, (b) the generation of data, and (c) the statistical analysis of data. All three processes are involved in testing hypotheses which are derived implicitly or explicitly from theories about human organization. Such hypothesis testing in field teaching is related to what Glazer and Strauss (1967) identify as "grounded theory development." Items b and c are involved in answering empirical questions.

In research, a hypothesis is a tentative statement describing a tentative relationship between two or more things. Kerlinger (1964) says that a test of a hypothesis is to determine the chances of it not being false. In research, an empirical question is one which can be answered through direct observation. Non-empirical questions require both direct observations and inferences in order to develop answers. Therefore, instruction-learning processes give priority to testing hypotheses and answering questions about the current state of human organization and ways to change this state.

Concluding Discussion

In conculusion, unlike most curricula, the ideal curriculum which has been outlined is neither course, nor content specific. Nor is the model itself. This is because one of the basic components which the field teacher training model proposes to develop is the ability for field teachers to make decisions. Traditionally, teachers in the classroom make decisions for, and about, students in their classes without an objective scientific base for making these decisions. This decision making process is part of the role assignment that is allocated to traditional teachers. Students have no control over the decision to assign a task by the teacher. The degree of competence with which the task is performed is one means of identifying and labeling someone as either deviant or non-deviant. In order for the field teacher apprentice to become aware of other ways to perform tasks--i.e., ways which do not involve role assignment and competition (Heiny and Cunningham, 1972)--a certain amount of ambiguity is inherent in the model.

The field teacher apprentice will not be allowed to have the decisions on course work made for them. Coursework decisions will be made by apprentices based on the content requirements of the ideal. curriculum in order to learn the consequences of their own decisions. Then, when in the field, the apprentice will be aware of the decisions that must be made and will also be familiar with exploring alternatives that exist. For the field teacher to gain competence in the systemic approach outlined, an understanding of the content is the goal, not a course grade. Therefore, many alternatives are intentionally made available, e.g., registering for classes, registering for a readings and research course, or independent study.

The field teacher apprentice will be expected to demonstrate competence in the ability to deal with concepts and content traditionally covered in classwork. This will be checked through performance in the field setting and the ability to relate field work experience to theoretical concepts. However, the field teacher model includes one other aspect that is different from a traditional liberal arts program with a social science emphasis or from a field based social work school-type emphasis. Now being developed is a set of simulations and games which will familiarize the field teacher apprentice with a variety of life styles, especially those that are most divergent from that of their family of origin. These simulations include use of commercial board games, and the finding and holding of an emplovment situation that is contrary to the life styles in which the apprentice was raised. These simulations are being developed so that the apprentice field teacher will develop skills in learning and knowing the people and resources available to a community. Some of the needed skills already identified include: networks of communication, transportation systems and networks, identification of the people in the community and the means with which people are classified as insiders, outsiders, acceptable, and unacceptable. These types of skills are not necessarily the same among various life styles, nor are they the same between various neighborhoods of comparable life styles. Nonetheless, they are skills that must be developed if the field teacher is to be successful in the role of a change agent, acting with and on behalf of a community. These skills and knowledges have been determined as necessary to the field teacher not only to be a successful community member but also to be familiar with the resources that a community has available to itself and what resources might be developed if the community is planning to act on its own behalf, before any action is taken.

All the above skills are being developed for presentation during the field teacher training sequence, and an integral part of the content of Task Group and Seminar activities. Not only will the simulations prove interesting and informative, but will also serve as a stimulus and motivation toward working in a community.

CHAPTER II

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Several stages of activities were completed in order to develop a working model for preparing people to prevent handicaps. Each stage included discussion among experts, field testing of ideas generated from these discussions and qualitative evaluations. Original plans outlined in the grant proposal were modified because the delayed authorization for funding resulted in conflicting schedules among relevant parties. Procedures used reflect a decrease in group planning sessions by educators and social scientists who wereoff of Peabody's campus and an increase in individually written correspondence, telephone calls face-to-face conversations and position paper writing about field teaching. Advisory committee members were contacted and agreed with these changes before they were finalized. Working committee members participated with varying amounts of time but with consistently relevant information and critiques.

Two types of procedures were used to complete this project. One involved administrative arrangements. Another involved the actual construction and testing of field teaching models, related education model for field teachers, and prototype field teaching practices and services.

Administrative Arrangements

Administrative arrangements used to develop the working models of field teaching include (1) establishing an advisory board, (2) establishing a working committee and (3) establishing prototype education-training service and practicum experiences for novice field teachers.

A. Advisory board.

An advisory board was established consisting of people knowledgeable and concerned with innovation in higher education and with the implementation of social science information and practices for the prevention of handicaps. Duties of the advisory board were (i) to serve as members of a consultant pool for the working committee, (ii) to present ideas in the form of position statements for possible inclusion in the training model and in the training prototype, and (iii) to respond to ideas and data collected by the working committee. Appointments to the advisory board were made by the principle investigator and the program director. Appointments included:

a. Samual A. Kirk, Professor, Department of Special Education, University of Arizona, Tuscon, Arizona.
b. William M. Cruickshank, Director, Institute for the Study of Mental Retardation, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48108.
c. Tillman Cothran, Vice President of Academic Affairs, Governors State University, South Park Forest, Illinois.
d. Robert Edgerton, Research Social Scientist, Neuropsychiatric Institute, Los Angeles, California.
e. Bernard Farber, Professor and Chairman, Department of Sociology, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona.
f. Michael Lewis, Professor, Department of Sociology, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts.
g. Leland Newcomer, President, LaVerne College, LaVerne, California.

Original plans were for the advisory board to meet at least twice during the planning grant period. The meeting was to serve as a beginning and an ending for the formal planning of the training program development in order to provide overall guidance and closure during the project. Because of the delay in receiving authorization to spend the grant money, mutually agreeable time schedules could not be rearranged for these meetings. Therefore, the project director and principle investigator met with each member and/or corresponded with them concerning the project. The visitation schedule included:

DATE	PARTICIPANTS	ACTIVITY
April 19-23	Heiny Lukenbill	Meetings during CEC convention held at Miami Beach-Samuel Kirk, William Cruickshank
April 29	Heiny Cunningham	Meeting at LaVerne College California - Leland Newcomer
June 16	Heiny Cunningham Lukenbill Pellow Stachowiak	Meeting at Peabody College - Leland Newcomer
July 12	Heiny Cunningham	Meeting at Amherst, Massachusetts Michael Lewis
July 19	Heiny Cunningham	Meeting at Ann Arbor, Michigan William Cruickshank
July 20	Heiny Cunningham	Meeting at Governors State University, Chicago Illinois-Tillman Cothran
August 11-13	Heiny Cunningham	Meeting at Paradise Valley Arizona - Bernard Farber
December 22	Heiny	Meeting at LaVerne College. California - Leland Newcomer

B. Working Committee.

The second general procedure was to establish a working committee of knowledgeable people with time available to operationalize the policy recommendations of the advisory board duties of (1) to conceptualize the training programs suggested by members of the advisory board, (2) to evaluate the effectiveness of the training period. Members of the working committee included:

a. David Harvey, Assistant Professor, University of Nevada, Reno, Nevada.
b. Phillip Schlecty, Associate Professor, Department of Education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.
c. Harry V. Wall, Chairman, Department of Special Education, California State College at Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California.
d. Howard Alstein, Lecturer, Paul Doerwald School of Social Welfare, Hebrew University, Jerusalem, Israel.
e. Robert Heiny, Associate Professor, Department of Special Education, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee.
f. Charles Watts, Associate Professor, Division of Education, George Peabody college, Nashville, Tennessee.
g. William Yancey, Associate Professor, Department of Sociology, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee.

Early copies of project ideas and field teacher activities were circulated to working committee members for their responses. Responses were incorporated into relevant planning and prototype activities and into position papers and response papers published in the January and April, 1972, feature section of the Peabody Journal of Education. Periodic correspondence and meetings with working committee members were also held. These visitations included:

DATE	PARTICIPANTS	ACTIVITY
April 19-23	Heiny Cunningham	Meeting During CEC Convention - Harry Wall, Howard Altstein
April 30	Heiny Cunningham	Meeting at California State College at Los Angeles - Harry Wall
April 31 - May 1	Heiny Cunningham	Meeting at University of Nevada at Reno - David Harvey, Beverly Harvey, Marilyn Smith
July 23-25	Stachowiak Pellow	Meeting at University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill - Phillip Schlecty
August 8-15	Lukenbill Stachowiak	Participated in SEIMC-BEH Evaluation Conference at Park City, Utah-Tom Snyder Robert McIntryre, Dan Anderson, Phillip Burke, Charles Watts, Stephan Lilly
November 23	Stachowiak	Meeting at University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill - Phillip Schlecty
December 27-28	Heiny	Meeting at Modesto, California David Harvey, Beverly Harvey

C. Prototype Program.

The third procedure was to use the three current programs available at Peabody College for implementing the prototype of the Field Teacher Training Program. People registered in the Interdisciplinary Undergradute Major in Human Behavior and the Community Education Task Force of the Department of Special Education were selected for participation in the field teacher program and in the Neighborhood Learning Center Program. Participants included:

PARTICIPANTS	ACTIVITY
Carl Calkins	Community Living Respite Center
Marilyn Smith	Community consultatnt and school school interventions with Native Americans
Elizabeth Pasquini	School Intervention Program Development
Mary Pellow Laura Clifford Dorothy Pittman - Goss Cecilia Fuller Ronald Lukenbill Ann Young	Community Day Care Programs assistance
J. Michael Coleman	Community sponsored habilitation programming

D. Program Arrangements.

Several program arrangements were made in order to insure that this project could be completed. First, the principle investigator and project director both have faculty responsibilities in three cooperating programs (Interdisciplinary Undergraduate Major in Human Behavior (HB), Community Education Task Force, Department of Special Education and Neighborhood Learning Center - an element of their Education, Politics and Social Change Research Program). In HB, both are advisors to undergraduate students who are potential field teacher trainees, and to graduate students currently enrolled in the Department of Special Education. Class credit is obtained for participating undergraduates through the Human Behavior Field Work Coordinating Seminars, and through the scheduling of additional lecture-discussion courses, and reading and research courses which allow field work activities to be part of degree programs. Affiliation with the Neighborhood Learning Centers' activities are obtained at the discretion of the principle investigator and project director, both of whom assume primary responsibility for the parent research program. The Neighborhood Learning Centers were developed and implemented originally in North Carolina by Heiny in conjunction with Cunningham, Farber, Lewis and Harvey (Heiny, 1969; & Cunningham, 1972). NLCs are functions of human interaction, not places such as a store front day care center: NLCs are developed by field teachers as they operate in community settings where formal organizations are at a minimum. NLC cooperation is obtained through communication with other field teachers. For example, Smith worked with Harvey in Rose City; Coleman worked with Barnes in Southernville; and Pellow and Clifford (1970) worked independently in Pleasant View. Such cooperative administrative arrangements are anticipated to continue in the future.

Steps in Development of Field Teaching Model

Several steps were followed in assembling models for the Field Teacher Education Program. These steps were adapted from Merton's (1959) notes on problem finding in sociology. Merton suggests three principle components in the progressive formulation of a problem: (1) originating questions which contain a statement of what one wants to know should be posed; (2) a rationale of stating why one wants to state a particular question that points toward possible answer should be posed; and (3) specific questions that point toward possible answers to originating questions in terms that satisfy the rationale for having raised it should be developed.

Step One

Originating concerns for developing a Field Teacher Education Program were developed before questions were posed.

(a) The originating concerns were for social justice, life chances of the handicapped, and the maintenance of participatory democracy. These concerns are basic moralisms commonly associated with a Judeo-Christian heritage, related to economics as Weber (1936) suggests in his analysis of capitalism and puritanism, related to politics as outlined in the United States Declaration of Independence, United Nations Charter, and related to academics and schooling as a means of self-actualization. These moralisms are accepted as ends toward which social change should be directed. In a very real sense, the Field Teacher Education Program model is based on a philosophical positivist position that human activity can and may be directed toward specific ends. The originating question leading to the generation of Field Teacher Education Program model was

> "What might teachers do differently than they do now in order to increase the opportunity for the people they serve to be treated equitably under the law, have their individual differences be less handicapping, and at the same time increase the probability that democracy will exist as a major form of government?"

Events which precipitated the development of this model of education include the development of field teaching in Plantation City and surrounding areas and the institution of the Interdisciplinary Undergraduate Major in Human Behavior at Peabody. However, the originating moral concerns were not sufficient justification or rationalization for the generation of a scientific exploration of alternative educative practices. Rather, more pragmatic reasons were realized during discussions with colleagues (see Heiny & Cunningham (1972)

(b) Pragmatic reasons for the generation of field teaching have to do with basic differences in perspectives about the way the world operates, ways to observe these operations, and options available for using these observations especially as they relate to understanding and working with handicaps. Lazarsfeld (1959) suggests that behind any classificatory effort is an originating observation of variations and differences to be explained.

Explanations of observations are conducted through classifying different phenomena by a "vaguely conceived underlying or latent property in regard to which people or collectives differ" (p. 48). Four steps can usually be discerned in the translation of this imagery into empirical research instruments. These steps follow a deductive sequence of going from a general verbal image to specifying several indicators, to specifying a subset of indicators, and finally combining indicators into a single index of the original general, verbal image. For convenience of focusing on the extremes of a serial order , two types of indicators are distinguished: expressive and predictive ones. These indicators refer to the relative place held in the hypothetical processes which mediate between originating observations and conceptual imagery which is developed to organize it. Predictive indicators are statements about necessary conditions which must exist in order to identify the probability of an event to occur.

(c) The field teaching education program model consists of expressive indicators of field teaching, education, and social change, all from social science system perspectives. Field teaching, as a service activity, gives priority to identifying predictive indicators of social change in the direction of democratic participation in daily decision making and to using rational means to increase the probability of producing change in that direction.

Step Two

A rationale for responding to initial concerns about social justice, and the pragmatics of participatory democracy, especially as related to education, was assembled. The rationale provides a focus upon special education practices and social functions today.

Special Education Today

Today, special education is enmeshed in social problems which are not accommodated in the assumptions underlying presently used concepts of handicapping conditions. Each action taken by a special educator responds to only one side of a series of social issues, either (a) class , ethnic and racial pluralism, or (b) the growing sense of social transition from an individualistically oriented frontier society to a complex, technological-urban conglomerate.

By not explicitly considering both types of social issues in conceptualization of who the handicapped are, special educators become unwitting allies in social movements and institutions which give priority (a) to controlling individuals against their will, (b) to violating the integrity of humane, racial and/or ethnic movements, and sometimes (c) to separating mother from child; young from old; white from brown, red and black; one social class from other classes; government representatives from local citizens; teachers from students; and, not the least of our concerns, special educators from regular classroom teachers.

The focus of current special education teacher training programs is on preparing professionals to identify and attempt to ameliorate personal troubles. One dominant assumption regarding the goal of existing special education programs is that some children have personal troubles at school and require special treatment to make them more normal. One dominant assumption regarding the means for obtaining this goal is that specialized personnel can be trained to reduce the severity and frequency of personal troubles of children, and to modify individual differences to such an extent that these children can function more normally.

To date, special education programs and procedures have not been judged effective (Dunn, 1968; Goldstein, Moss and Jordan, 1965; Kirk, 1964) in ameliorating handicaps i.e., retarded children are still considered retarded after they have been in special classes; and children with artificial limbs are still judged handicapped even though they perform the same tasks as do people with biologically developed limbs. In fact, increasing speculation and evidence indicates that mildly handicapped children are labeled only when they attend schools, and concurrently, are considered normal when in their daily non-school worlds. (PCMR, 1969)

To date neither professional nor scholarly agreement exists about which troubles are crucial ones, nor about which ways of ameliorating identified troubles are most efficient and effective. Nor does professional agreement exist regarding the best ways to prepare teachers to ameliorate any problem identified (Heiny, 1969). Such lacks provide an anomic situation which is subject to political decisions, including decisions about which conditions of human existence are handicaps (witness legalistic definitions established by Congress for implementation of the Bureau of Education of the Handicapped), and about the treatment of those labeled handicapped (witness the action by Congress to establish the Bureau in the Executive Branch of the federal government).

Toward an Alternative Special Education for Tomorrow

In the spring, 1968, the faculty in the Department of Special Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, responded to concerns (1) that a distinction should be made between preparing teachers to work in classrooms for the severely handicapped, and persons who work with those people labeled mildly handicapped, and (2) that important relationships exist between school achievement, social classes, and patterns of child growth and development, especially as these factors result in people being labeled handicapped. Recognition of these concerns led to the establishment of the Interdisciplinary Undergraduate Major in Human Behavior (See Appendix D).

The rationale for the Human Behavior major includes a straightforward commitment to (a) scholarship, (b) practical experience under supervision, and (c) freedom to identify, research, and resolve issues related to man's survival in modern society. The rationale is implemented by ongoing research, exemplary practicum facilities, and a wide range of professional activity which students share with faculty leaders.

Local, regional, and national needs of programs for the handicapped are directly related to the concerns identified in 1968 by members of the Department of Special Education at Peabody and to the development of the major and the NLC's.

(1) Preparing teachers for Special Education Classrooms or Community Work.

Until recently, most special education personnel have been trained to teach in classrooms and have little formal knowledge of the community in which they live or teach. The NLC field teacher role is an attempt to provide a means for obtaining additional knowledge of communities through active involvement in defining and attempting to resolve various local social problems.

School personnel consider the high percentage of socially different families to be an important problem related to education in Tennessee and the Southeastern United States. Families in the Southeast come from several divergent cultural traditions, including urban, rural, and mountain areas populated by Whites, Blacks, and Indians. An increasing numbers of children from minority tradition families enter classrooms with deficits which traditional programs (including special classes) have failed to ameliorate, they are identified through traditional psychometric procedures as being eligible for membership in special classes, especially those for the educable mentally retarded.

Currently, no agreement exists among special educators, policy makers, curriculum planners, or researchers regarding the logical and empirical relationships between labeled exceptionalities and the existence of minority traditions. In addition, no agreement exists regarding the relationships between appropriate instructional procedures and instructional content for variously labeled exceptionalities and for members of minority traditions. However, some agreement exists that most of curricula, textbooks and recognized teaching methods are aimed at the experiences and values of white middle-class children (Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, 1969). Wilson (1969) states that a teacher will face some specific problems in relating to the culture of an inner city area. Similarly, problems will be encountered by the teacher when cultural differences are encountered in rural areas. In either urban or rural schools, the evaluation and expectations of the teacher may be the most important source of information for a child to gauge his ability. Niemeyer has argued that "the chief cause of the low achievement of the children from alienated groups is the fact that too many teachers and principals honestly believe that these children are educable to an extremely limited extent" (1963).

The political and economic demands for solutions to this lack of agreement concerning appropriate instructional and academic problems placed upon teachers, teacher-trainers, and researchers by these children and their families are well-known. An illustration of political and economic demands for solutions to educational and social problems includes the formation of programs such as Head Start in the Office of Economic Opportunity.

The influence of these politically initiated activities upon educational programming is still undetermined. However, acknowledgement is made by the Peabody faculty in HB and Special Education that current educational programs for children who are different, at least in portions of the Southeastern region of the United States, are not as effective as educators, including other special educators, might wish.

Faculty members at Peabody, as part of the higher education system in the United States, are expected to serve the needs of Tennessee's high percentage of socially different families. Faculty members of HB and of Special Education are aware of this expectation and of some of the pressing social problems. These same members are making a specific effort to consider Tennessee as consisting of a special case (although admittedly biased) of problems of cultural differences and exceptionalities which also exist in other parts of the Southeastern United States. Instructional strategies which consider and account for these broad social problems, especially as they affect the development of conditions leading to handicaps, will continue to be developed.

Strategies used in current training programs concerning exceptional children and cultural differences have been developed in experimental child psychology, developmental and experimental psychology, and sociology. These strategies emerged as a result of the development of these academic disciplines rather than from focusing upon possible solutions to social problems. In general, instruction of the handicapped has been limited to psycho-educational and clinical models, both of which are closely related to strategies developed in psychology and medicine.

By contrast, several members of the Peabody faculty are interested in considering handicaps as a function of the maintenance of social institutions, including schools, medical care, and law, rather than simply variations in individual differences. Knowledge of the function of labels in institutions leads to a multi-disciplinary base upon which school and governmental policy decisions may be based. The perspective of institutions as the basis for selecting topics and strategies for instruction is in contrast to currently used psycho-educational models. As in any exploratory effort, the results of this institutional perspective have not been demonstrated in large numbers of studies dealing with traditionally labeled exceptionalities e.g., retarded, deaf, emotionally disturbed. However, these strategies may yield radically different, but viable information upon which future policy decisions may be based concerning the care and treatment of persons labeled exceptional. Thus, new alternatives to social problems now considered as resulting from variations in individual differences and cultural variation may result from using additional strategies which are being developed at Peabody.

(2) Relationships Between School Achievement, Social Classes, and Patterns of Child Growth and Development.

Perhaps the most fruitful distinction the special educator can make while assessing the adequacy of conceptualizations of handicapping conditions is to refer to the personal troubles of Milieu and/or to the public issues of social structure as outlined by Mills (1956). This distinction in the social sciences yields an understanding of priorities in special education, and thus of the severe limitations resulting from any activity initiated by special educators. Mills suggested that personal troubles occur within the character of the individual and within the range of his immediate relations with others; they have to do with his self, and with those limited areas of social life of which he is directly and personally aware.

The statement and resolution of personal troubles lie within the individual as a biological entity and within the scope of his immediate surroundings i.e., in the social setting that is directly open to personal experience, and to some extent his willful activity. Personal troubles are private matters which involve threats against values that the individual cherishes.

By contrast, social issues occur when matters transcend the local milieu of the individual and the range of his inner life. They have to do (a) with the organization of many local segments of the person's environment into the institutions of a historical society as a whole, and (b) with the ways in which various environmental units overlap and interpenetrate to form the larger structure of social and historical life.

A social issue is a public matter which involves threat being brought against values cherished by collectives of people in a society. Often, Mills suggested, it is not clear what value is threatened and what is really threatening it. A characteristic of an issue is that there may be debate without focus. Unlike widespread personal troubles such as low IQ scores, an issue cannot be well defined in terms of immediate and everyday environments of ordinary people, but may involve a crisis in institutional arrangements which brings on contradictions or antagonisms between values and/or means for realizing the values.

Traditionally, handicapping conditions (a) are conceptualized as personal troubles of people from all levels of society, (b) are related to distributions of human attributes, and (c) are judged to be deviant patterns of behavior, growth, and/or development which are identified and classified by professionals. Handicaps have been and are being considered given phenomena which require control by experts, especially by trained educators and psychologists. If only a few people are labeled handicapped, in a nation of over 200 million people, these are personal troubles which may be handled on an individual basis. For relief of the trouble, governmental agencies and concerned citizens consider changing the person to fit the existing institutional arrangements in society.

However, if in that same nation millions are labeled handicapped or are kept away from the principal resources for sustaining contemporary life -- i.e., from the best education, medical care, housing, food -- this is a social issue. Relief will not be found within the range of opportunities open to any one individual, or to all of the labeled persons by dealing with them strictly on an individual basis. The very structure of institutional arrangements which support all citizens has collapsed.

From this sociological perspective, what constitutes a normative rule and decisions as to which rules are most appropriate in a given situation, is a social issue. Discussions about deviations of behavior and development are personal troubles. Although psychologists and educators recognize that normative rules and patterns only typify characteristics and do not represent individuals, administrative procedures are established on the basis of the typifications.

Educators and others interested in psycho-bio-behaviorism may pause at propositions such as "given that inter- and intra-individual differences exist, how might they be modified." However, a social scientist who considers that personal troubles or public issues of social structure might represent these differences might ask how differences are used as bases for legitimizing existing social structures and distributions of access to resources and power. Farber (1968) suggests that to legitimize differential opportunities and access to institutions for some people, d still say that we have a democracy, we must find some personal ouble that others have. Accordingly, children who have discrepancies patterns of physical or psychological development may be considered viant if they are judged very different. The result of such judgments to consider the deviant as having a personal trouble.

Special educators traditionally are concerned with the child during d after he has been labeled different. Generally, as with the case of e educable mentally retarded child and the child diagnosed as having learning disability, his personal troubles are not defined until he aches school. Accordingly, school personnel, including special educators, re an instrument for perpetuating (a) labeling processes which permit ifferential allocation of resources to various elements of society, and b) a competitive system which leads to discriminatory action by social anagers.

Lewis (1970) suggests that (1) formal competence of agents--school teachers, social workers--(2) the neighborhood milieu and (3) familial competence milieu operate to impede rather than enhance the development of conventional competence among ghetto residents. He suggests that formal competence agents such as school teachers impede their own effectiveness by operating inappropriate styles of intervention. The interventions are inappropriate because direct and extended consideration is not given to factors identified from a social system perspective.

Current procedures used by special educators are oriented to working with individuals called handicapped, and do not consider the total range of effects of their programs. For example, special education classes for the educable mentally retarded disproportionately enroll racial minority children in Chapel Hill, North Carolina, and other urban areas (Heiny, 1970; Hurley, 1969). One way of explaining this is to suggest that it results from conflicting values which meet in a school setting; on the one hand, segregation of the races has been a cultural tradition in at least the South and perhaps in other sections of the United States as well. With changing U.S. Supreme Court decisions and Justice Department edicts, segregation has been considered illegal. Concurrently, with a decrease in the number of racially segregated classrooms, there has been an increased enrollment in classes for mildly handicapped children, including many children from racial and cultural minorities (Wall Street Journal, October 15, 1970). Special educators have not conceptualized handicaps in a way which accounts for such social phenomena. Farber, Harvey, and Lewis (1969) suggested that conclusions from studies of the relationship between community life and the school vis-a-vis the poor (blacks and whites), indicates familial deficiencies which are translated into intellectual and educational deficiencies. These sociologists suggested that:

> (T)he line of reasoning ordinarily taken by educators is (a) the basic patterns of learning are developed in infancy and early childhood in the family, (b) if members of the family are deficient as teachers or role models, the child will be deficient in his learning habits, (c) if these learning deficiencies are to be erased, school curricula should be revised to compensate for these deficiencies. A major assumption in this line of reasoning is that the institutional arrangements in the community--schools, businesses, government, welfare agencies, and so on--cannot be modified drastically to solve the learning problems generated in these families. Given this constraint, any attempt at eliminating the deficiencies must be restricted to working with the individual children either in school programs or in the context of the family (p.11).

Medical and administrative models have been used for outlining and implementing educator activities derived from these assumptions. Increasing numbers of diagnostic and remedial training programs for children with personal troubles are being conducted by teachers who have received training and certification as special educators.

Frequently, this labeling occurs when the child reaches school age and is judged to be a slow achiever or slow learner: the child is identified as the result of a judgment of actual or probable failure being assigned to him by the teacher, psychologist, or administrator. Thus, the special educator is not viewed as a preventive agent. When functioning alone, this traditional role of the special educator becomes of increasingly dubious value and morally questionable in the face of the increasing evidence suggesting that labeling has a debilitating effect on the child (Rosenthal and Jacobsen, 1966; Meyerowitz, 1965, 1967).

Summary

Existing special education programs have focused upon defining personal troubles and preparing professionals to ameliorate those problems. Such priorities have led to a continuing division of labor and specialization in all phases of education, including teacher training colleges. However, these divisions have not greatly changed the lives of children so that they can better survive in low income or ethnic minority environments. In addition, little has been done to provide a direct change in the "low income status." Traditional roles for special educators have been within professional programs and have not acknowledged (1) specific activities for educators acting as social initiators, nor (2) social issues regarding the maintenance of society, notions of social control and deviance, participatory democracy, social stratification, or distributions of power and wealth.

Step Three

Specific questions that point toward possible resolves and answers to originating concerns and that satisfy the rationale were developed.

a. What model -- e.g., objectives, processes, criteria -- of preparation of people for increasing the life chances of the handicapped might be generated?

b. What model of services might be developed to increase the probability of increasing the life chances of the handicapped?

c. What effect upon life chances of people labeled handicapped will be generated through this service system?

d. What social changes might be generated or used as a result of field teaching?

CHAPTER III

ON MODELS AND MODELING IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Models or representations of special education practices and functions play a significant role in the first phases of understanding the development of the field teacher role and of the field teacher education program. A brief, but comprehensive review of models is presented to set a constant perspective about the place of models in educational program planning. This set is necessary because partial and partially developed models of special education already exist in professional and popular literature. These pieces contain many of the basic and sometimes fringe ideas and practices assembled under field teaching. The proposed constellation of practices and functions of field teaching differs from the known functions of these existing fragments of special educators' roles as they relate to development of participatory democracy among people in a common setting for a common period of time. Although not enough research has been conducted to demonstrate that only linearly functions occur from current teacher roles, sufficient evidence does exist to suggest that students are limited in learning and personal behavior by traditional teachers' roles. Additional future research might be conducted to specify more clearly and completely the social structure and operation of the extent models for teacher roles. Such research might provide the basis for a closer fit between teacher functions in a democracy and language for discussing these functions, thus leading to a general understanding of out comes of teaching-education. At present, current teacher role models are relatively useless as a basis for generating functions leading to student centered self actualization, community organization congruent with support for this growth, and professional accountability that such support and growth are taking place.

Recommendations resulting from the review of special education teaching models include; (1) that the extent models (including partial models such as the psycholinquistic basis for the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities) be identified and expressed as completely and clearly as possible given the present state of knowledge in the field; (2) that empirical research be funded which will either substantiate or refute the validity of these models as bases to accurately predict social functions for the learner-citizen; and (3) that substantiated, well developed models be used as the basis for inventing additional role activities-performances for educators besides the current emphasis upon people-changing through reliance upon external-loci-controlled instructional materials, procedures and equipment.

Structure and Function of Models

A model or theoretical model is a representation of a phenomenon which displays distinguishing characteristics, such as the structure, major relationships among various elements of the structure, and processes which maintain the structure,processes and functions of the phenomenon in its natural-original state. Gellner (1964) suggests that models are used within social sciences to designate a range of verbal and graphic representations of reality, including of social life. Gephart

(1970) suggests that models serve three general purposes; to explain the constituency of a complex phenomenon, to describe how such a phenomenon works, and to provide the basis for predictions about changes which might offur in one element of the phenomenon when changes are made in another element. Common usage of the term model may be found in any hobby shop where famous airplanes and racing cars are available in miniature size and price for would be sportsmen and active Walter Mittys. Visiting a city park on a dry Sunday afternoon frequently provides an opportunity to watch these miniatures dogfighting or racing with much of the same demonstration of competition which is witnessed with the larger units. A common academic use of models is in the presentation of theories, hypotheses, and postulates designed to explain behavior of people and organizations. Any college textbook or professional journal provides an opportunity to review these miniature reproductions of the causes and effects of behavior of people and social systems.

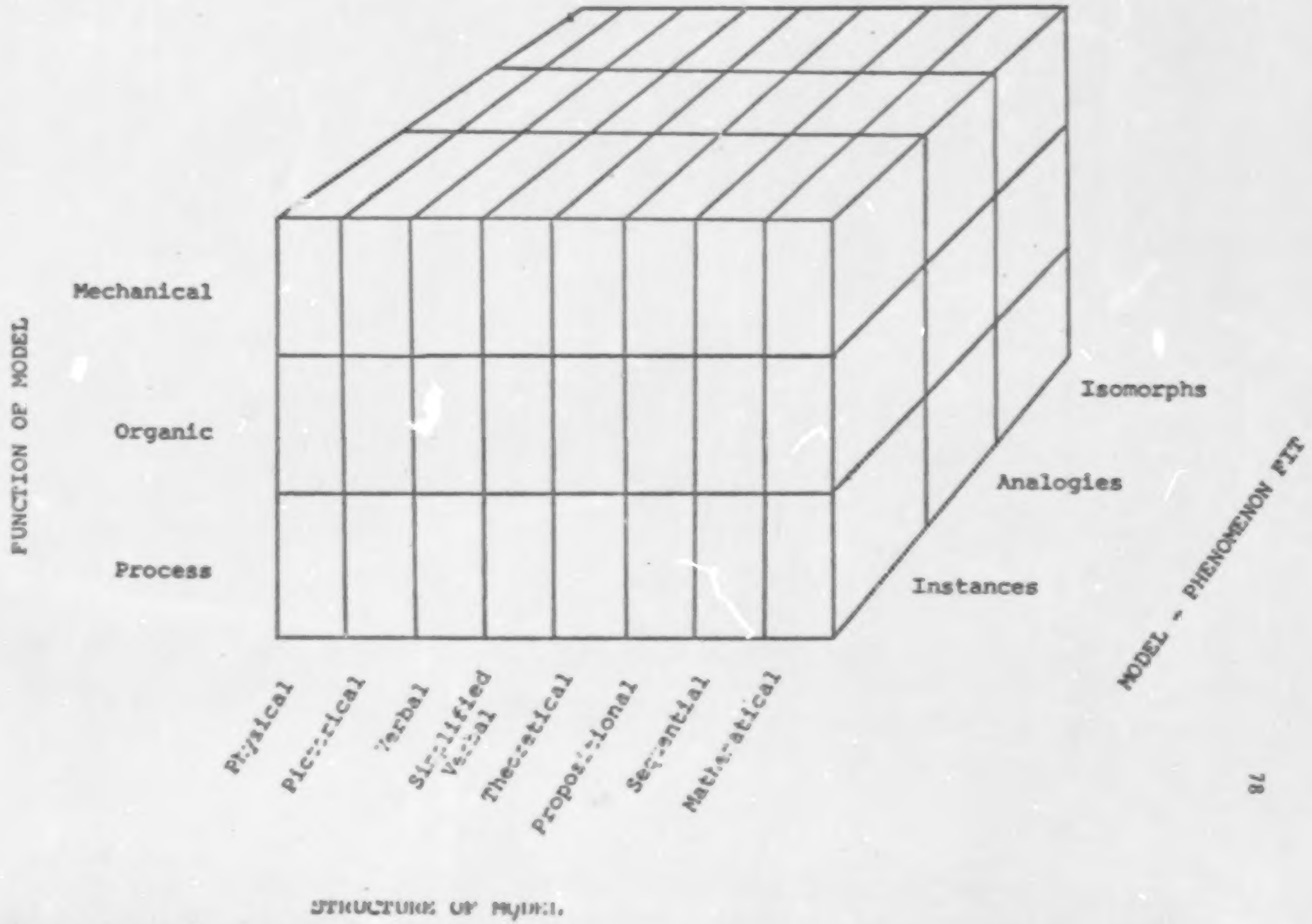
According to Gellner, five kinds of models exist. One kind of model is an actual physical artifact analogous to some other system; the parts, their relationships and the working of the system are such that by observing the artifact, by producing changes in it and by seeing their consequences, inferences can be made about activity in the original system. A second kind of model specifies in works the attributes of an artifact as described in the first model specifies in words the main attributes of a system, but in terms simpler in various ways the main attributes of a system, but in terms simpler in various ways than some larger or more complex system. For example, a race car model kit usually includes small plastic pieces and a set of directions and charts for assembling the model which looks like but is smaller than the major parts of the full size car. The plastic pieces are physical artifacts which are a simpler, but highly similar, representation of pieces on the real race car. If paper diagram and verbal representations called directions or plans-to-assemble-the-kit describe each item in the kit and/or each item on the larger car, then the second kind of model is used to construct the directions, only some of the parts are described verbally, (and the rest of descriptions are graphies) then the third model or simplified model is used. A fourth kind of model is any theory which possesses the features included in the first three kinds of models. A fifth kind of model is any proposition which is or represents a model as in the fourth kind. Gellner summarizes the kinds of models by suggesting that relationships of parts in the real system are reproduced in some other medium. However, kinds of models vary beyond these five generic types suggested by Gellner. Gephart suggests that combined verbal-pictorial forms may be generated as models and that flow charts and mathematical formuli are models. All eight of these models exist as templates for assembling the many pieces of incomplete information available about handicaps and society.

Insert Chart 4
Here

Gephart also suggests that modeling or the process of using a model may occur in at least three ways. One way is for modeling to occur by instance or by calling attention to the locus of a phenomenon, not to the

CHART 4

TAXONOMY OF MODELS


FUNCTION OF MODEL
Mechanical
Organic
Process
Physical
Pictorical
Verbal
Simplified Verbal
Theoretical
Propositional
Sequential
Mathematical
STRUCTURE OF MODEL
Isomorphs
Analogies
Instances
MODEL - PHENOMENON FIT

details of it: "He is a model..." A second way for modeling to occur is by analogy: similarity in output without identifying any connection between the model and a correspondent. A third way for modeling to occur is through an isomorphic presentation: a one to one correspondance is generated between each element of model and of original system. Obviously, different models will lead to different interpretations of observations and different implications for future actions.

Uses of models vary with the sophistication and intended outcomes of the user. In general, models are used to present postulated properties and relationships among properties. Frequently, as in sociology and psychology, models allow deductions to be articulated about consequences of various interventions into a system.

Postulates, as one form of model, are indicators of phenomena to be observed in the real world or the original system. Lazarsfeld (1959) suggests that two kinds of indicators exist: expressive and predictive. This distinction, like all such dichotomies, is one of convenience for providing focus upon both extremes of a serial order or continuium of possible observations. These indicators refer to places in the hypothetical processes which mediate between originating observations and the conceptual imagery that is developed to organize these observations for analysis and understanding. This distinction between indicators also helps in relating various studies to one another and to locating problems and controverises so that their "hidden agenda" become more explicit. Lazarsfeld defined these two indicators through examples (expressive indicators) and explanations-elaborations-discussions of particular items to consider when going beyond observations (predictive indicators).

One example of an expressive indicator was an item on the F-scale used by Adorno (1950) in investigations of anti-semitism. An expressive indicator or item on the scale reads: "Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn". Agreement to this item can indicate uneasiness in handling one's own moral problems, but the relationship between response and anti-semitism is neither obvious nor isomorphic.

A second example taken from the same scale is suggested to be a predictive indicator: "Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret by politicians." Lazarsfeld suggests that agreement with this statement is only a small step to belief in the Protocols of the Elders of Zion.

Lazarsfeld summarizes his discussion of these indicators by suggesting that all classificatory concepts derive in the following way: Some empirical variations are observed; "they are to be explained by a more general notion, an 'underlying trait.' The indicators for this trait point to the new unit to be construed, but their choice is also dictated by the originating observation and the corresponding expressive indicators is coupled with different empirical observations which is supposed to explain. This leads to distinct subsets of predictive indicators. Finally these are fused and take on expressive functions for a generalized variety (p.53).

In general, two statements describe models. First a model is a reproduction of another system. The basic structure of a model is congruent with major assumptions, premises, and propositions upon which the original artifact was constructed: a model meets those conditions which allow all of the primary functions of the original system to occur in the reproduced system.

Second, models may be a representation of a system in a medium other than the original medium. In any medium, models provide a relatively easier access for manipulation and observation of primary structure and function of various parts. Easier observation and manipulation provide a basis for inferences and generalizations about the structure and function of various parts. Easier observation and manipulation provide a basis for inferences and generalizations about the structure and functions of the original system. Differences may be made through use of expressive indicators; generalization may be made through use of expressive indicators. Both differences and generalizations may exist in any of at least three kinds of model presented in any of at least five (5) forms with any of at least three fits with nature.

CHAPTER IV

SOCIAL SCIENCE MODEL OF HANDICAPS

A social science model of handicaps is developing in literature describing social processes, social roles and statuses, and social organizations. Although relatively few studies have been conducted expressly to test social aspects of handicaps per se, much information is known about how some people are labeled, stigmatized, tracked, and treated because of collective action associated with some human characteristics.

A social science definition of handicaps cuts across standard categories of human characteristics used for assigning disabled and slowly developing people to current programs. Current categorical programs are designed primarily to change the individual. By contrast, cross categorical definitions, models, and programs readily permit identification of elements in the social order which might be supported or changed in order to increase life chances of people singled out for attention. Minimum knowledge options availabe for constructing these models and programs are outlined in general terms in a social view of the psychology and education of exceptional children. A cross categorical view of exceptional children is presented as a social view of the psychology and education of exceptional children. Next, minimum knowledge options available for constructing these models and programs are outlined in general terms in a Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities. Third, a brief historical review provides a context for understanding the function of knowledge options. Fourth, a comparison of three models derived from the knowledge options provides additional understanding of similarities in functions of two of the three models, and thereby provides a base for understanding a third model, i.e., a social science model of handicaps

Exceptional Children: A Social View of the Psychology and Education of Exceptional Children

Exceptional children are made, not born. They are the products of moral value conflicts concerning variations in human growth, potential and organization which persist throughout recorded history and in all known civilizations. Although exceptional children apparently always exist, their importance today is highlighted by the material ability to produce surplus food, extravagant machines which can reach other planets, and extensive organizations which allow collective survival in personal comfort for some. Exceptional children are usually those who do not enjoy such comfort, even in affluent families, a paradoxical byproduct of these humanitarian efforts. A critical understanding of the psychology and education of exceptional children requires consideration of this context, especially the issues and paradoxes which constitute contemporary life.

The process of producing exceptional children is social in origin. The process is the matching of variation in human growth, potential, and organization with commonly held moral values: the shuffling of various human, personal characteristics with various pragmatic requirements for human survival such as the sharing of food, shelter, medical care, and problem solving.

Two logical components of sharing exist: (1) sharing as a process for developing a social structure, and (2) sharing as a means to collective survival.

1. Sharing as a process for developing social structure results in large part from repeated daily activities. By definition, in any repeated activity, a few events are distinguished from all others. These distinctions are made between those to be included and those to be excluded in the repetition of activities.

Patterned activities result from such repetitions. Criteria for inclusion in the pattern may change with time and situational factors; degree of exclusion may also change; but criteria of permiability and exclusivity remain analytic structural components of each pattern. Thus, patterned daily activity produces situational definitions of appropriateness, and by implication if not specification, inappropriateness. Logically, exceptionalities result from the development of patterned daily activities which are distinguishible from non-patterned events. Activities and events not included may be considered exceptional. Patterns existing in daily human behavior may stress what is important to the individual person and what is required to maintain the pattern regardless of whether or not the person thinks it important.

2. Sharing as a means to a common end occurs through a joint commitment to survive. Sometimes the sharing is transformed into an end, but this is a vulgarization of its primary function in the development of exceptionality. Commitment is the consideration of one deed to be sufficiently important to be accomplished jointly even when it requires denial of accomplishing other deeds. Such common commitments and priority ranking of ends are structural components of social value, or stated another way, a social basis for deciding what is right and what is wrong. Elaboration of rightness and wrongness constitutes a moral system which provides the basis for stigmatization of some human variation and the sanctification of others.

Combining logical processes for patterning daily activities with the development of a social-moral value system provides a two tiered basis for a social definition of exceptional children: those who are excluded from daily life experiences enjoyed by peers because of personal attributes or variations in human growth, development or perceived potential.

Social definitions exist only within the context of social institutions, organizations and independent daily activities. Daily activity patterns, when related to each other form middle range patterns or formal organizations. Patterns of formal organizations are ways of identifying institutions which are abstract, but relevant cultural and social phenomena because they serve to differentiate one civilization from another.

Since exceptional children are products of social activity, but are treated as though they result from biological or psychological variations, several conjectures may be posed:

1. human variation may exist to such an extent that social accommodation is made only through isolation of the individual from normal human daily life.

2. problems of maintaining social organization may be so great that existing human variation must be reduced through extermination or amelioration in order to benefit the greater number.

3. whether because of human variation or organizational maintenance, some social activity exists to such an extent that considerable, possibly undesirable effects are expected to happen upon the lives of many other members of society; these effects may develop into a public discussion of how to dispose of the situation.

Since the first two options are covered by other writers, and since the third may serve as a basis for suggesting changes in daily life patterns and specific anticipated results, the third option will be used as the basis for the construction of this social view of the psychology and education of exceptional children. Accordingly, human variation which exists to such an extent that it is judged wrong, deficient, too different or inappropriate will be considered the same as a social problem. Lumping together all of these variations is like mixing oranges, walnuts and grapes into one bowl. Although they are different fruits, they are similar in that they grow on plants; they are the reproductive transmission element of the plant, and they are edible. Social problems exist as different versions of social activity, are similar in that they are products of social and institutional organizations, and if not controlled, they may change the very structure of society; certainly, they are digestible (understandable) by the human intellect.

Exceptionality as a Social Problem

In general, the traditional idea of a social problem emerged as an attitude of middle-class reformers around the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th centuries. Barber (1957) suggests that this idea resulted not only from stresses created by the new urban industrial order but also because of the new scientific ideology and of a growing humanitarianism. These same reformers were concerned with the care and treatment of the lame, dumb, deaf, and blind. Their efforts were channeled into obtaining more medical care, better shelter, and more functional education and training for human social rejects.

In the early part of the twentieth century interest shifted away from social reform and toward personal troubles of individuals. With the application of probability tables to behavioral situations, predictions began to be made about which individuals would most likely succeed in which situations. Accordingly, extensive studies were conducted of genetic traits, of the distribution of intelligence and of the distributions of interactions and products of these two. Also, descriptions were made of social problems as biological, psychological, sociological and educational problems. Thus, what was once considered to be a problem in daily social interaction increasingly was being studied systematically after subdividing daily life among academic disciplines and professional efforts. This subdividing resulted in trading more objectivity in searches for prime causes of daily problems for less direct effort to accomplish social changes needed to increase the life chances of certain members of society.

With the growth of science, both the approach and the substantive areas considered to be problems worthy of systematic investigation changed. For example according to Sarason and Doris (1969) in 1904 Binet and Simon were charged with the responsibility to devise an instrument to separate potential readers from non-readers in the schools of France. Subsequently, the instrument and many of its later generation kin were devised in order to study ideal constructs of intelligence which were generated in order to hypothesize why some children read and others did not. As a result of this initial systematic review of a particular administrative problem, numerous additional practical and academic problems about behavioral variation have been identified, generated and/or developed into independent topics of study which also have provided the groundwork for further professionalization and scholarly thought.

Although common categories of human differences--e.g., readers and non-readers, sighted and non-sighted people--have existed throughout recorded history, any substantive explanation of them as a social problem requires study of the social and historical context within which they exist, Thus, human differences are social problems only when related to a given society at a given point in time. Also, although continuity in categories of human variation has persisted, stigma attached to these variations shifts according to specific social situations. For example, in ancient China, blind people were sooth sayers: in Judeo-Christian Biblical times, they were beggers: in more recent western civilization, they may be segregated into residential schools or admitted into public school programs, but in general they enjoy a life style substantially more normal than those stigmatized as stupid or as a racial minority group member. Another example is that around 1910, grave concern was exhibited through popular press and professional literature that the national average intelligence was being lowered because of unrestricted human breeding: the retarded and the economically poor were allowed to have children: they were having so many children that they were feared to be raising the national average family size and at the same time lowering the national average intelligence. Subsequent empirical evidence leads to the suggestion that these beliefs were naive and unfounded. In fact, the popular press of the past 15 years repeatedly presents concern for a knowledge explosion which is contributing to a generation gap between the recently and previously educated, perhaps the opposite situation from concern for reduced intelligence. Such demonstrations of changes in public interests and of social problems are of importance to the study of exceptional children because no other common basis other than public interest exists for defining exceptionality.

Although no commonly nor professionally agreed upon (theoretical) cause-effect basis exists for understanding all exceptionalities, authors of standard introductory textbooks concerning exceptionalities cite their general prevalence and incidence, their alleged causes, as well as their alleged cures. The rest of such texts presents a series of distinct chapters dealing with categorized exceptionalities which are not conceptually related to one another in any fashion. Whatever theoretical appraoch is developed (Kirk, 1962; 1972) it tends to be related to a personal trouble or individual problem model. The personal trouble approach focuses upon the behavior, biological equipment or mental state of the individual, especially its abnormal aspects. One difficulty with the personal trouble approach is that when it is applied to educational and theraputic settings, professionals tend to overvalue conformity, implicitly if not explicitly because, by definition, no other common expectation exist. "There is a kind of halo around conformity and almost any kind of nonconformity tends to be viewed as a problem" (Bernard, p. 139). Whatever the theoretical explanation given to exceptionalities, they may be viewed as social problems in that exceptionalities exist as a result of social interaction (Barberand Luckmann, 1966; Harvey and Heiny, 1972; Farber and Lewis, 1972). According to Bell (1971), a social problem is, in part, the result of a discrepancy between the values of a society and the actual state of that society. Therefore, a primary motive for the development of psychology and education of exceptional children has been to look for ways to prevent, control and ameliorate social problems produced by people who draw attention to themselves.

Basically, social problems and exceptionalities may be said to exist when they are so defined by members of a society. Initially, the definition may be presented by professionals, lawmakers, or parents, but eventually, the situation must be accepted as a general problem by at least one broad stratum of society or it will be just an irritant to a few disgruntled folks. This process clearly implies that underlying each exceptionality is a difference of expectations and a clash of values. For example, by 1957 concern with exceptionalities as traditionally studied received new momentum with the launching of Sputnik. To a great extent this new momentum was due to a popularized vision of how science should solve international space travel problems by producing more scientists. This faith in science spread into education and was supported by federal legislation and appropriation of funds in order to rapidly change schooling for infants through youthful Ph.Ds. In the broad sense, certain human variations received exceptional consideration through perceived connection with support for an international reputation: these values were for hard work, thrift and potential contributions to the state. People treated as exceptional were judged by legislators and related lobbyists as not making sufficient contributions to society whether because they were too stupid or brilliant, fools or creative, possessing only one leg or were potential Olympic record holders. The labeled people, their behavior, and their related personality characteristics are all social phenomena. Thus they also may be social problems in the sense that human relationships and the normative contexts in which all human relationships exist are social (Merton, 1961).

Exceptionalities as social problems are interruptions in the expected or desired scheme of social life; people judged as exceptional, violate common behavioral or physical appearance characteristics as a society defines these qualities; people judged exceptional are those who contribute to dislocations in the social patterns and relationships that a society cherishes. The contemporary argument is that people judged exceptional should be studied scientifically in the same manner that non-human behavior is studied.

Also a belief has developed that exceptionalities and other social problems should be studied not only for what they may contribute to the better understanding of the rest of human behavior, but how exceptionalities contribute to understanding the operation of human society. "This is based on the assumption that social problems, even the worst of them, generally have a functional relationship to the rest of society" (Bell, p. 5). For example, many have suggested that mental retardation exists only as a reflection of the value that is placed on the problem solving capacity of a relatively few people. In fact, it may be argued that all exceptionalities have some value to society even if it is nothing more than providing careers for those who deal with or attempt to eliminate problem behaviors and undesired related personal characteristics. This suggests an irony in that those who work the hardest to eliminate a social problem or behavioral exceptionality may be contributing the most to the existence of the problem and may have the most to lose if their work is successful. For example, what would happen to employees of custodial schools for the blind if electronic sight machines become available for all who want and can use them in normal daily life?

Ultimately any study of exceptionality can be understood only in light of what a society holds to be right and proper. "At bottom, social problems are such because the behavior involved in these breakdowns and deviations is widely regarded as immoral, illegal, or potentially destructive of some established institution." (Merton and Nesbit, 1961: p. 11).

Basically, the literature on the psychology and education of exceptional children has lost its utility in reformist conceptions of social justice because it does not provide a theoretical framework for understanding what constitutes social exceptionality and what the interrelationships are of the areas of individual differences with the rest of social life. Because of the limitations of the standard approach to exceptionalities, a different perspective is being developed in an attempt to broaden the implications of actions of professionals and laymen to concern for social justice rather than amelioration of personal differences through social control and exploitation. The alternative is to provide a social meaning from theoretical perspectives. By definition, the theoretical (cause-effect relationships) statement should facilitate generating social meanings for exceptionalities other than as negative (handicapped) contributors to society.

Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities

This paradigm for analysis of exceptionalities (PAE) is a logical sequence of choice points and alternatives which constitute parameters of the decision making process for treating people differently (see Appendix B for a more complete discussion of the paradigm). PAE complements the current problem-solution orientation used in literature and practices concerning exceptional individuals. This complementary orientation is a re-differentiation and re-ordering of predominantly used concepts and practices. PAE provides a systematic basis for asking questions from various perspectives concerning the origin, existence and control of exceptionalities.

The basic rationale for PAE is that people and organizations which focus their activities upon exceptional individuals follow observable patterns of daily activities. All daily activities may be analyzed so that logical and axiological options available may be identified and considered for internal validity and consistency. Each choice point and alternative in PAE represents a qualitative influence upon the development of these patterns of daily activities, including the treatment of exceptional people. Major categories of choices include consideration (1) of preconceptions of what constitutes reality (rational, non-rational or irrational processes), (2) of ways to observe reality (systematically or non-systematically, in experimental or natural settings), and (3) of what is done with those portions of reality which are observed (descriptions or prescriptions are outlined).

Social History of Exceptionalities

The social history of exceptionalities revolves around the recognition of individual differences among humans and the use of these differences to legitimate social control mechanisms which maintain existing social orders. The development of special education reflects the perspective that social institutions are designed to facilitate the advancement of the talented through the provision of resources to maximize their chances for survival. Definitions of talent seem related to observations of superior demonstrations of competencies in competitive situations, including in schools. Such adaptations by the talented may be called survival of the fittest, fitness being a general term labeling the relative degree of adaptability of a potential or actual role holder in existing institutions. From an institutional perspective, fitness is the relative degree of congruence between role performances of role holders and role expectations held by policy makers and administrators of social, economic, and political institutions. Special education has developed as a social organization to facilitate the matching of human variations with social needs. Implicitly, special education is conceptualized as beginning with the first recognition that intra and inter individual differences exist to such an extent that variations in treatment of humans are appropriate for the survival of society. To the extent that these differences are identified and judged relevant to the way people live together, the distribution of resources for the survival of individuals is varied. Historically, special education has developed through stages (1) of treatment through segregation and restriction of resources for survival-as-normal for people called different, (2) of concerns for caring for these people by providing resources required for physical existence and (3) of concerns for instructing them to be incorporated into existing, dominant social value systems. These stages are not mutually exclusive, but are successive refinements of policies and practices which lead logically to current practices concerning exceptional people.

From early records, indications are that some individuals were called sick and physically deformed. Treatment of these people was harsh. According to Frampton and Gall (1955) in Sparta, under Lycurgus (c. 9th century B.C.) deaf children were consigned to the pit, idiots were allowed to be abandoned, and other labeled handicapped people were exposed to the elements. In Athens, under the influence of Solon (b. 638 B.C.) and Plato (c. 428-348 B.C.) deaf children were put to death, and crippled children were allowed to die of cold and neglect. Similar practices are reported in Persia, India and the Roman Empire. During the middle ages, treatment of the crippled was characterized by contempt and ridicule. However, institutions of care for the labeled exceptional people were beginning to emerge.

The development of differential residential care began in the 13th century when Belgium opened the first public hospital for the feebleminded. In Paris (1260), Louis IX founded what is considered the first public hospital for the blind, Medieval poor-relief laws which were instituted included the blind, as seen in ordinances of Frankfort (1437), Cologne (1450), Antwerp (1458), Nuremburg (1523), and Yepres (1523). The English Poor Relief Law (1601) included the blind, crippled, sick and the aged as social dependents.

Laws promulgated during the middle ages reflect concern "for the property of the disabled, and little legal attention was given to his person" (Lindman and McIntyre, p. 7). In England (c. 1255-1290) the statute _de Praerogativa regis_ was enacted. This law divided mentally disabled people into two classes, idots and lunatics. The former was a person that "hath no understanding from his nativity" and the latter was a "person who hath had understanding, but.... hath lost the use of his reason." The king was granted the custody of the lands of "natural fools"; after providing the fool with necessaries, the king could retain the profits from the land. After the fools' death, the land was returned to the "right heirs." The land of those who happen to "fail of their wit" was held by the king and all of the profits therefrom applied to the maintenance of the mentally ill persons and their households. Any excess was returned to such persons "when they come to right mind." Guardianship over the property of the "idiot" was profitable for the guardian; on the other hand, managing the property of a "lunatic" was a duty, and no profit could be made from it.

Contemporary remnants of the social function of this English statute are represented by Farber's concept of organizationally surplus population. The function of the English statute was to legitimate profits gained from property of natural fools. One of the primary functions of OSP is to maintain high probability that a rational production of goods system will be maintained during fluctuations of products demanded by providing a reserve of available production workers.

Mills' (1959) distinction between public issues of social structure and personal troubles of milieu provide an additional analytic basis for observing contemporary aspects of how the function of being called natural fools remains an invitation for exploitation. Both in historical and contemporary contexts the labeling process and institutionalized means for dealing with so-called natural fools has proved profitable for many in the society who are not stigmatized.

CHAPTER V

MODELS FOR DEVELOPMENT OF FIELD TEACHING

Social scientists use many theoretical models to develop theories about order and change in society. According to Leslie, Larson and Gorman (1973), the term theory usually refers to a set of interrelated propositions or statements that explain a fairly broad range of research findings. This definition might be reworded as statements that outline possible cause-effect relationships which are believed to exist under specified conditions. Examples of theoretical models include Einstein's statement of relationships among time, motion, and mass in physics and Skinner's statement of relationships among stimuli and responses in psychology. Such theories are based upon assumptions contained in more generic models. Thus, theoretical models are broader systems of explanation than single theories; these models are grounded in unproven and perhaps unprovable ideas about the very nature of existence. Furfey (1954) suggests that these models are part of metasociology and contain the rules by which theories are to be derived. These models provide limits upon theories as explanatory devices, and opportunities for developing alternative cause-effect statements. Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities (Appendix B) is the model to explain alternative cause-effect statement about exceptionalities. Such models also determine how the scholar perceives subject matter, what aspects of the subject matter is studied, how the study is conducted, and which conclusions are possible to be reached.

Field teaching is grounded upon data which were derived from the use of three theoretical models. Each of these models is commonly used in social sciences, but is seldom used in a pure form. Rather, the use of models is observable as independently related to various topics of study.

Mechanical model. The mechanical model is in common usage when discussing daily lives of people. The model is also known as social physics because the concepts are position relationships (status), energy relationships (motivation), and time (basic condition in which other relationships occurs). Common evidences of this model are census tracts and voting behavior reports. Typical vocabulary describe moral and social space, relative position, system of social coordinates, attraction, inertia, equilibrium, pressure, social statics, and social dynamics.

Organic model. The organic model is in common usage when discussing systematic relationships between two or more phenomena. This model is also known as an evolutionary model or as social darwinism. Key concepts or components include function and structure. Common evidences of this model are statements of principles of organization, adaptation and use.

Process model. The process model is in common usage when discussing on-going activities such as confrontations, encounters, and interactions. This model is also known as interaction. Key concepts include the continuous interaction of personalities and groups which define, assess, interpret, verstehen and act in such way to define a situation.

Numerous variations and permutations of these three generic models exist in social science literature. For example, a statistical model is used by students of society who consider themselves scientists. Statistics are based upon laws of probability which incorporate concepts of relative position and system coordinates within some system, all of which are derived from the mechanical model. A structural functional model, sometimes called a functional model, incorporates concepts of adaptation and organization derived from the organic model. A conflict model incorporates concepts of continuous action between related elements of a system, and is thus derived from a process model. All social scientific models incorporate (a) concepts of probability from the mechanical-statistical model, (b) concepts of natural functions from the organic-functional model, and (c) concepts of continual, multiple outcomes from process-conflict models. In summary, a pluralism of models is available for rationalizing, explaining and developing rules for scientists to study society and social behavior of humans.

Components from each of these three theoretical models are used to assemble the field teacher model. From the mechanical model, concepts of space such as status, role, statistical-mathematical probability, and stratification are used to discuss relative solidarity of society; relative variations of wealth, health, and education of members of society; and relative life chances. Farber (1968) relates these concepts to people labeled handicapped by suggesting that they are members of an organizationally surplus population with relatively less life chances for success than other members of society. From the organic model, concepts of structure such as organizational need, personal problems, and tension management are used to discuss relative adaptability of members of society to a dominant order or norm, and variations of ways to increase adaptability through manipulation of the social structure and the milieu of members of society, Kirk (1972) relates these concepts to handicaps by suggesting that non-adaptability is a handicap and that special education is a program designed to increase the adaptation of the individual through a modification of milieu or school program. Farber and Lewis (1972) suggest that educational efforts to adjust school programs have accepted as given the dominant structure. This structure is used as a prime base for differentially treating deviance as a liability for some and an asset for others, depending upon their relative positions in the structure. Farber and Lewis continue by suggesting that technical adjustments in instruction of the deviant produce progressive status quoism.

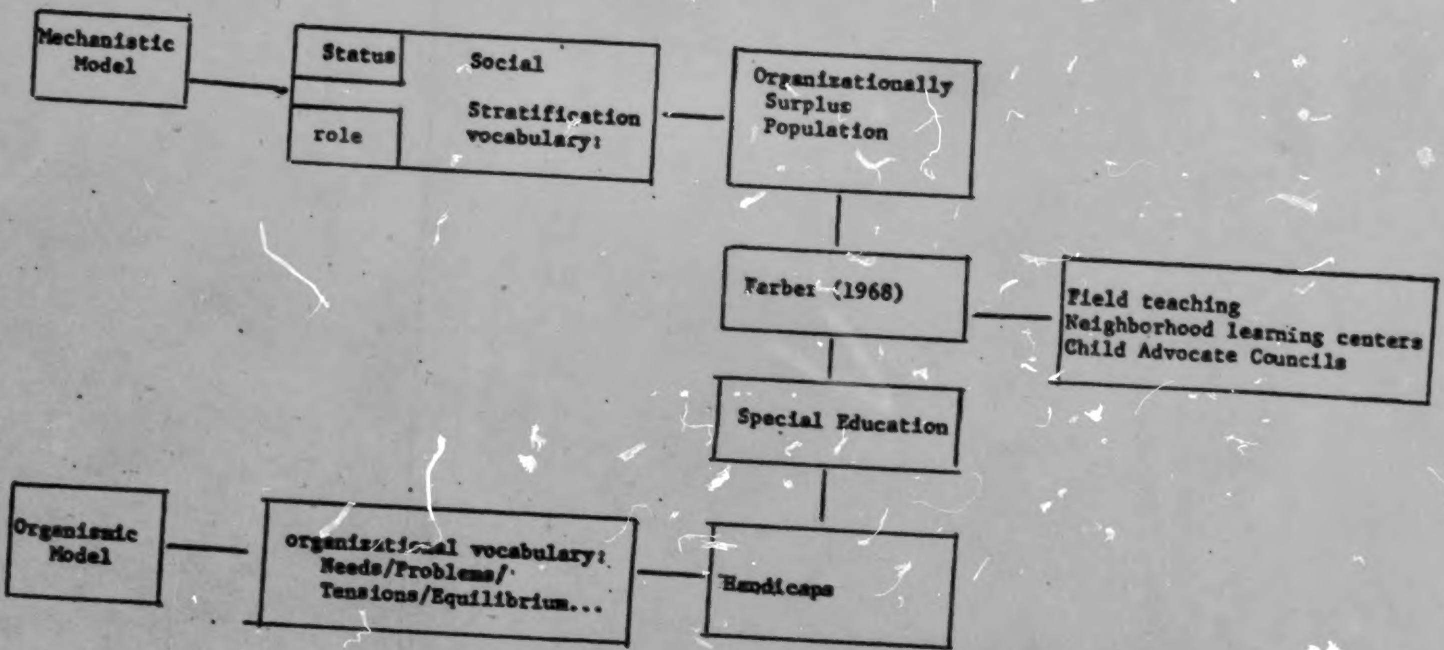
Insert Chart 5

Here

Systematically combining models is difficult if possible beyond a

CHART 5

MODELS USED TO BUILD FIELD TEACHING MODEL


Mechanistic Model
Status
role
Social
Stratification vocabulary:
Organizationally Surplus Population
Ferber (1968)
Field teaching
Neighborhood learning centers
Child Advocate Councils
Special Education
Handicaps
Organismic Model
organizational vocabulary:
Needs/Problems/
Tensions/Equilibrium...

nominal level, because they do not necessarily share the same assumptions. Therefore, a hypothetico-deductive process for assembling alternative models for education and prevention of handicaps is inappropriate by itself. In other words, any cause-effect statements, propositions or theories derived from such combinations must be assembled from some point of origin other than just commonness of assumptions among models. However, presence of commonly identified problems called exceptionalities and of commonly held sociocultural status, role, goal and value differences serve as originating observations vis-a-vis Merton which may be refined, reviewed, and eventually answered, accepted or changed.

Assumptions Underlying Field Teaching Model

Assumptions underlying the field teacher model include items for traditional teaching and education, social systems analysis, and summaries of research on social aspects of handicaps. First, the role of teacher is assumed to be more than that of an instructor, or a manager of a classroom, or of a master of knowledge. Rather than any of these, the teacher is assumed to be a master learner who facilitates the development of the individual to a level superior to that which might be achieved without the teacher. Second, education, a formalized subset of general socialization, is a social means for maintaining existing social arrangements, including the social structure. Social institutions constitute major components of a social system. Socialization processes within these institutions focus upon preparing new role holders to replace those currently maintaining the institutions. The replacement of role holders provides for the continuation of institutions regardless of the individuals who compose sets of role holders. Prospective role holders are continuously evaluated, assisted, and eliminated for specific roles and statuses in the social structure. Thus, not everyone is judged to be eligible for any particular role or status in a given institution or in a given set of institutions. As may be inferred from Farber (1968), this institutional perspective results in the development of an organizationally surplus population. Summaries of research on social aspects of handicaps indicate that few, if any, synthesis of results and implications of results has been attempted. Previous attempts to explore social aspects of handicaps have produced proposals and action directed to problems such as curriculum development rather than to basic theory building or hypotheses related to social functions of exceptionalities, disabilities, deviance, handicaps, talent, and other forms of misfit.

Taxonomy of Field Teaching

A taxonomy of field teaching is one kind of model which provides a description of components and relationships from which may be derived a static representation of how educators might conduct their activities outside of schools. As a static model, a taxonomy has all of the characteristics associated with other snap shots rather than direct involvement in life: a limited focused subject is considered during one point in time past without direct reference to motivation for the action observed. Stated in other words, a taxonomy relies upon teleological and tautological arguments without accounting for interpretations which fit linear or multilateral arguments. This static model is used because it most easily fits the language pattern available for verbally explaining field teaching practices. That is, the English language is basically product oriented, not process representative. Thus, when a discussion occurs about the social world, that verbal discussion will be through presentation of sequenced snap shot representations of social action. Parsons (1966) suggests that study of society will never go beyond such descriptions even though it is possible to outline basic structures and functions of that society and action which keep it going. As with any description of any social action, this description of field teaching is an incomplete and inadequate representation of categories of phenomena considered. The reason for presenting the taxonomy is to provide some limited basis for developing a more complete statement of social processes which are used in field teaching propositions.

Major components of the taxonomy of field teaching consider selections from the social world - i.e., educative experiences, community organizing and social change - and social information - i.e., social practices, social facts, and propositions. Actually, all six elements are handled as verbs although their form is not necessarily that of a gerund or infinitive.

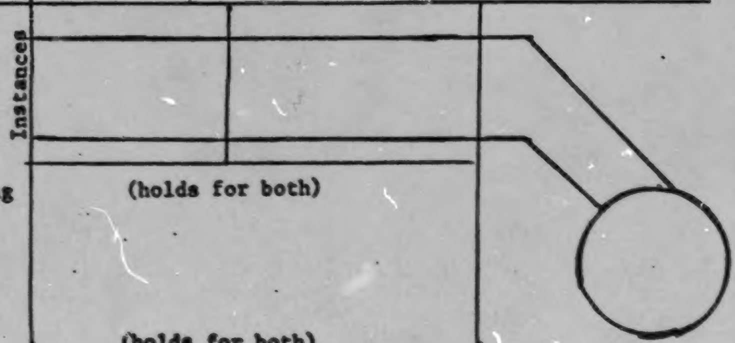
Insert Table 1
Here

Educative experiences are means for field teachers to use their knowledge and skills about human socialization on problems faced by members of the social world. Educative experiences are those activities which present a person with the opportunity to think or act in a way which is unique or an extension to his biography in order to increase the personal satisfaction or the life chances of that person. In terms of a social system, educative experiences are those events which allow a role holder to increase the probability of surviving in the system and perhaps deriving some additional benefit from it.

TABLE 1

FROM SOCIAL INFORMATION TO SOCIAL CHANGE

Parsons' Social Action Hierarchy	Field Teaching Hierarchy for Change	SOCIAL ASPECTS OF ACTION		
		Educative Processes	Community Organization	Social Change
Adaptation - Task	Practicing			
Goal				
Attainment - Goal	Fact establishing			
Integration - Norms	Proposition Developing	(holds for both)		
Latent				
Pattern				
Maintenance - Values	Generalizing	(holds for both)		



Common field teacher activities related to educative experiences include writing on paper a child's song so that he may be introduced to similarities between oral and written symbol systems, assisting three and four year old children to break the reading code through direct instruction a la Bereiter-Engelmann, supporting parents through suggestions, consultation and moral support to establish and maintain cooperative day care centers for their children, serving as agent for a parent in negotiations to return a child into a school classroom when removed by school officials, securing breakfast and other meals for children, bail money for students, and negotiating individualized instruction packages with students, parents and teachers.

Community organizing is a means for field teachers to use their knowledge and skills about human organizations on problems identified by minority members of the social world. Community organizing is those activities which present local citizens with the opportunity to think and act toward their position and prestige in society in a manner which is unique or an extension of their biography. In terms of a social system, community organization includes those events thich allow a role holder to increase the probability of meeting with other role holders in similar circumstances in order to accomplish a mutually agreed upon goal. Common field teaching activities related to organizing include encouraging parents to take actions which they think should be taken to establish a day care center, providing transportation so that parents can meet with school officials and board members to discuss their children's education, locating donated and inexpensive building materials needed for the construction of a community center, and outlining tactics and strategies for obtaining decisions wanted from school people.

Social change is the end toward which educative experiences and community organizing are directed. One end of such change is the modification of probabilities of individual differences being used to the relative benefit or detriment of individual members of society. In order to modify these probibilities, consideration must be made of modifying social interaction, especially those patterns of interaction which are called social institutions. A second but intermediate goal of social change is to establish a balance in power between members of social organizations. Anyone who thinks they can change social institutions through linearly related processes whether by education, people changing or violent revolt is either a member of the nobility or naive; either way the situation has been reduced to idiotic simplisticisms commonly associated with supersitions. Aware of the nemesis of linear explanations, social change as used in field teaching is related to writings of Weber, is considered to occur from multilateral forces or vectors (as in field theory) at unexpected times and for only fleeting duration. Common field teaching activities related to social change include maintaining a state of disequilibrium in social interactions through exposing and explaining incongruence between ideal and real practices. In other words, field teachers may listen to what school teachers, board members, mayors, senators say they want to accomplish, watch what they do accomplish, identify differences between the two, and then make public these differences, and/or propose alternative courses of action which consumers as individuals or groups may attempt in order to deal with these differences.

Social aspects of action such as educative process, community organization and social change are divided into four major subdivisions. Each of these subdivisions are related to Parsons' social action hierarchy: a corresponding field teaching activity has been developed. At the most specific level of activity, field teachers practice their daily routines. At the most abstract level of activity, field teachers generalize from specific routines to comparable routines, situations and consequences.

Practicing. In the field teacher hierarchy of activities leading to social change, practicing is the most concrete and involves the most people to people, face to face contact. Practicing activities include participation in a community, intervening on behalf of other community members and their children in schools and actively initiating ways to assure the rights of individuals. Practicing is related to Parsons' adaptation level where specific tasks are performed by specific role holders. Priority is given to individual over group considerations, or gemeinshaft over gesellshaft.

Fact establishing. In the field teacher hierarchy of activities leading to social change, fact establishing is a second order activity involving reporting observations about daily activities of local, neighborhood people as well as of officials in government, business, schools and voluntary agencies such as churches, crippled children's centers and Boy Scouts. Observations are collected and reported in traditional social scientific ways with an emphasis upon ethnographic methodology. Reporting of observations is to make public some information and interpretations which are the general tools of professionals and bureaucrats, but not of the people whom they are committed to serve. Distributing private or scientifically collected information among the general public provides the basis for laymen to check whether or not officials are doing the job they claim to be doing and are paid to be doing. Fact establishing is related to Parsons' goal attainment level where specific goals are defined for accomplishment through tasks performed by various role holders. Priority is given to individual over group considerations or gemeinshaft over gesellshaft perspectives in attaining goals.

Proposition Developing. In the field teacher hierarchy of activities leading to social change, proposition developing is a third order activity involving the assembling of information-facts into probable cause-effect statements which might be used to increase the probability that given goals will be attained by role holders performing specific tasks. Propositions are developed in the same way social scientists develop any proposition: observations are noted, speculations are made about relationships among observations, speculations are tested directly and indirectly to establish the range of validity of the speculations. Proposition developing is related to Parsons' integration level where norms are observed to be related to patterns of actions which lead to goals being attained through tasks performed by various role holders. Priority is given to group and rationality over individual and sentimental considerations, or gesellshaft over gemeinshaft.

Generalizing. In the field teacher hierarchy of activities leading to social change, generalizing is a fourth order activity involving the extention of propositions, goals and tasks to situations beyond the immediate data and observations. Generalizations are developed and made in the same way social scientists develop and use any generalization; primary and lesser conditions under which norms exists are observed in specific instances and then predicted to occur in other instances when the same conditions exist. Generalizating is related to Parsons' latent pattern maintenance level where values and beliefs are said to control the selection of sets of norms (patterns of actions) which lead to goals being attained through tasks performed by various role holders. Priority in generalizing is given to group and rationality over individual and sentimental considerations, or gesellshaft over gemeinshaft.

The model of field teaching uses physical analogies to explain what occurs. Future revisions of this model should slough the physical analogy in favor of direct explanation of processes used in social change. Such sloughing will require additional language development which is process oriented. The physical analogues provide examples of processes which need to be described. Coined words such as field teaching and educative experiences are feeble attempts to develop this language. Use of psychological theories and models about handicaps were judged inadequate because they equate handicap and deviance with personal functions, including personal troubles which might be ameliorated by changing the person. These theories do not use principles of context for explaining the existence of any phenomenon, including handicaps. The one exception of this practice is the school now called transactional psychology. Transactional psychology has been derived from work earlier called ecological and field theory. Although field teaching is related to many of the same concerns addressed by other theorists, the main emphasis in this new development is that social change is a primary end for daily activity. By contrast, other theorists do not necessarily give priority in their actions to this end.

The use of a static, physical analogy does present several problems beside the lack of an adequate language to express observations made. A second limitation is the lack of acknowledgment of such items as human intellect, personal interest, and social power. Although each of these items may be of debatable importance in an adequate explanation of social change processes, their existence is acknowledged as of potential importance, and thus should be explored further in future research on field teaching. A third limitation is that encountered but never resolved by Gestaltists: how to deal with a phenomenon which seems bigger than the sum of its parts. A physical analogy of this problem is illustrated by bonding in a chemical reaction. Bonding per se is not observed in a chemical action, nor is it explained based on direct observations which have been integrated into propositions and theories. Also, chemists do not say that a random action occurs nor that random relationships exist among components involved in the bonding. Rather, the relationships and actions must be stated in equation form. Each equation includes elements (H, H, O) and operations (+) to yield (=) a compound (H_2O). The chemical action produced by the operation is more than a simple additive process represented by the symbol in the equation. The result of the process is another chemical unit held together by an exchange of components. Testing this relationship includes the use of probabilities, theories and common tools and elements.

In summary, the state of education and scientific thinking does not include a language pattern which adequately describes functions. So, anyone who intends to deal with functions rather than products and their state, must outline the product and then cite limitations about its applicability. The physical analogy presented here is a gross approximation of what occurs in field teaching attempts to produce social change. This analog is gross because it is a linear process and social change is not. Early cognitive theorists such as Guilford and Bruner encountered similar difficulties in attempting to explore information processing vs. products of information.

The basic physical model used in developing field teaching is $E = MC^2$ or energy is equal to mass times the speed of light squared. Nominal translation of his equation into field teaching yields energy as social change processes, mass as existant social order, speed of light as daily activities of consumers of resources and holders of characteristics called handicaps (such as minority group status, physical disabilities, and mental aberrations) and the square function is a field teacher. The point of field teaching is that geometric progression in social activity is intended and needed, not just an additive function in order to accomplish social change. In relation to social information-change model, this progression requires 64 times more participation at the task, nominal scale, practical terms for field teachers. Many instances of educative experiences and attempts at community organizing are needed to demonstrate problem solving ability and thus to gain credibility for more powerful organizing. Arrest in activity at levels 1, 2, or 3 of the social information-change model is what Farber and Lewis (1972) call progressive status quoism.

Another physical model used to explain field teaching is bonding theory in chemistry. In general, an exchange of electrons between elements is made to produce a new chemical unit called a compound. A nominal translation of this theory into field teaching yields theory as the nucleus, daily activities, social facts, propositions, and generalizations as electrons, all of which are charged with a(n) (electrical) value. When another element with a different charge comes within a precise range, then (electical) values are exchanged so that a balance is obtained between the two elements now joined together as one compound. To investigate the stability of the bond, which holds the compound together, stop-action is taken: and so forth until variations of stability as related to heat can be predicted. Similar stop-action may be taken regarding other conditions such as pressure, and pressure times time interactions. Practical applications of bonding theory are apparent on kitchen shelves and in automobiles. Galvanizing occurs by keeping charges unequal in the two metals until a desired amount of zinc is plated on the basic metal. The process in general is called electrolysis. Unequal charges on two poles in a car battery function to produce electricity upon the completion of an electrical circuit. The trick in both of the bondingelectron exchange processes is to maintain an unequal charge for as long as you want to produce either a new compound or to release energy.

Field teaching involves using an unequal distribution of resources as an example of what keeps general social equilibrium. Once people are aware of this process of inequality, field teachers introduce alternative actions which may turn the inequality in their favor rather than their disfavor. Such alternatives must provide satisfaction for the layman; satisfaction is defined in very practical terms of assisting the layman to solve some immediate problem. An implication of this problem solving is that the existing system which is supposed to handle the problem with the layman, but which did not do so to his satisfaction is debunked, at least partially. As field teacher activities become energizers comparable to pressure and heat in gas theory, then stop-action procedures may be used in order to find out which people, role holders or information networks are most relevant to producing desired changes in organizations. The stop-action occurs while fact finding, while developing propositions and while forming and testing generalizations about ways to bring about macroscopic social changes. These multiple level stops produce a reverberating system where multiple actions occur at any given point in time, where multiple results are possible at any point when action is restarted, and where the results may be anticipated, predicted and controlled, but not explained from a linear model regardless of how sophisticated the attempt.

One final model used to explain field teaching is Hegel's dialectic: a thesis, antithesis, and synthesis. In terms of field teaching the thesis refers to activities, rules, norms and other devices of dominant culture;

the antithesis refers to alternative rules, patterns of daily living, and other devices of counter, alternative or minority groups for sustaining life while outside the resources and benefits of the dominant society; the synthesis refers to a power balance between dominant and alternative activities in order for all parties to negotiate knowingly their own results. Implications for the social order are that it will change when a new balance of power is reached even if only temporarily. The trail of dialectic action is thus monodirectional just as a rifle is; the thesis-antithesis-synthesis sequence reoccurs in rotating fashion like being spun by rifling in the barrel. The trick of using this model is to control the spin of dialectic once a direction has been selected. This control is accomplished by allowing the people who are to be effected by the results of field teaching activities to select the antithesis and for the field teacher to serve as truth-judge-catalyst in maintaining the integrity of that position in the initial power imbalante. The field teacher role is supported by accurate and complete information about what the key negotiators are going to want and how they are most likely to try to get it even before any negotiations begin formally.

CHAPTER VI

MODEL OF FIELD TEACHING

The concept of field teaching embraces a wide range of understanding about human social organizations and collective actions. The organizations and actions considered as loci of field teaching activities include such collectivities as multi-disciplinary diagnostic clinical teams, friendship cliques, vigilante mobs, extended families, counterculture schools, and members of a university lecture course.

The model of field teaching consists of characteristics common to social organizations, to collective actions, and to social aspects of human handicaps. This task of building a model of field teaching is completed in spite of considerable lack of agreement among educators and social scientists concerning definitions and theoretical usefulness of various concepts and forms of social organizations and actions. Diverse schools of thought have arisen because of different ways of looking at organizations.

A problem for constructing a social science model for prevention of handicaps arises when this question is asked: Which concepts shall we use to analyze and compare social organizations and actions in order to prevent handicaps? Each follower of each specific approach to prevent handicaps is very likely to give a different answer. Even if two people use the same words, they are likely to intend slightly different meanings. For social scientists who consider organizations in terms of division of labor, the most important concepts are role, specialization, coordination, and functional integration (see Janowitz 1969 for an extensive discussion of division of labor applied to education).

Followers of the influence approach may agree that the concept of role is important, but they give priority in their analysis of organizations and human behavior to such concepts as status, social class, social stratification, elite, and counterculture. The division of labor approach and the influence approach are static models of organizations.

Variations of these two static conepts are considered in the field teaching model. Dynamic aspects of the proposed model evolve from social relationships cited in proposition form. The form for defining dynamic qualities of social behavior is congruent with the social interactionist school where priority is given to citing relationships between elements of a social collectivity.

Characteristics of Field Teaching

Field teaching is composed of actions of people. These actions take place in social organizations. Thus, field teaching is the interaction of people who produce processes and consequences through analytic parts of organizations. Two basic parts of organizations are subgroups and roles. Mott (1965) defines a subgroup as any part of a social organization which has all the properties of a social organization. All organizations may be observed to have subgroups. When viewed as a social organization, a school contains such subgroups as teachers, learners, baseball teams, orchestra, and library users. Analyzing the school in another way, the school is a subgroup of a larger school system which in turn is a subgroup of a still larger community organization. Other community subgroups which are parallel to the school and which interact with school people to influence school policy and practices include businesses, churches, welfare offices, city parks, and informal friendship networks. When communities are analyzed as subgroups in society, some subgroups may be seen to specialize in commerce and others in manufacturing, food processing, or education. Nashville Tennessee claims to be the Music City boasting 97 recording studios. As point of fact, but not of brag, the town also has over 700 churches, the highest church to population ratio in the United States. The brag focuses upon a new growing industry; the fact of churches is a well known traditional aspect of life in the "Bible Belt," and not newsworthy nor of direct interest to people associated with industrial development. Both music and churches contribute to the community. Records produced in Nashville are sold throughout the world. In exchange, food, automobiles, and fuel are shipped into Nashville to sustain life there. Churches provide numerous jobs for architects, real estate speculators, janitors, and publishing houses from beyond Nashville. Thus, the community, as a subgroup of society, produces one commodity which is exchanged for things produced in other communities.

In more general terms, this exchange may be characterized as the development of a balance between specialized units of an organization. Mott suggests that if a part of a social organization develops specialized functions or activities by its members, then it is dependent upon other parts for the performance of other functions which are essential for survival. He suggests further that "The greater the differentiation among the subgroups of a social organization, the greater is their mutual dependence" (p. 15).

Roles are parts of social organizations; they are performed by people, but are not people per se. Roles are combinations of rights and responsibilities with which certain activities are routinely associated. People perform activities associated with these rights and responsibilities; people perform roles. Shifts in the balance of rights and responsibilities bring about a corresponding shift in the relative status a person may have in that organization. Different constellations of rights, responsibilities, and corresponding statuses yield a division of labor within any one organization and between two or more organizations. Again, Mott generalizes this concept of division of labor derived from role differentiation by suggesting that "The greater the division of labor in an organization, the greater is the actual dependence of the members " (p. 18).

Field teaching is composed of patterned actions by people (roles) designed to intervene into an organizational division of labor at the subgroup level. Interventions are to bring about a new balance or a partial redistribution of rights and responsibilities among members of that organization. The redistribution is to provide a balance in dependence and support favoring subcultural norms and subgroup expectations of members of the organization. For example, a student who is expelled from school because of a history of "behavior disorder" is supported by a field teacher for readmission to school and if necessary for an appropriate individualized program to be established immediately. Means for accomplishing this end include threatening to take school administrators to court to obtain public services for a public taxpayer's child and providing technical suggestions of alternative classroom teacher responsibilities. A second example of field teacher activities is instructing mothers of low income families how to use instructional materials like DISTAR reading kits so that their young children break standard reading codes before entering school. Both of these examples incorporate a redistribution of rights and responsibilities of school based educators by non-school based educators using their knowledge of formal organizations to beat the chances of personal failure being attributed to a child's personality or life style. In other words, field teachers gave professional secrets to nonprofessionals for their joint use in changing the balance of power and thus social integrative forces in an existing division of labor in a social organization.

The characteristics of social organizations, social change, and social information affect concepts and actions related to handicaps. Perhaps the most fundamental effect is that handicaps are a function of organizations, not of individuals. This effect is different from common sense or from current special education and psychology emphasis. This social organization relationship can be stated in proposition form and tested. However, social science conceptions of handicaps are that they are the effect of combining an individual difference with a social judgement of incompetence or deviance (Farber, 1968).
Recognition of this combination accommodates knowledge about social organization, change, and information that diversity is a standard phenomenon. No such agreement exists about the origins of deviance. Cohen (1966) suggests that one school of thought considers rule violating as normal and convenient daily activities and asks why most

people conform in the first place. A second school considers control of deviance essential for maintaining social organizations. Depending upon the school of thought followed, different concepts of deviance are generated. In field teaching, deviance or lack of conformity is accepted as a given phenomenon which should be understood for its benefits to people rather than just for its organizational disfunctions. Deviance is seen also as the beginning step in changing social organizations. Although the argument is circular, common sense leads to the suggestion that lack of conformity is necessary, but not sufficient, for generating changes.

In summary, primary characteristics of field teaching are that social organizations are both the locus and focus of actions which are intended to produce a redistribution of power toward more direct support for human differences. Tools to instigate such actions include (1) exhibiting alternative organizational forms, (2) making private-professional-technical information available for common folks, and (3) exposing as persistently as necessary, incongruences between intended and obtained goals for human services.

Redistribution of power may be a noble end, but it certainly is unlikely to be accomplished by educators who spend their time trying to change people. Relationships between power, roles, subgroups , and handicaps are concepts related to characteristics of field teaching. These relationships can be stated in propositional form.

Propositions About Field Teaching

This model of field teaching is a constellation of propositions derived from theory, practice, and facts which constitute social sciences. Primary focus of these propositions is upon social information being distributed in forms and manners which increase the probability that individual citizens may modify their life style to their choosing. Propositions are divided into several categories, each of which is represented by an issue. Two such issues are that education gives priority to maintenance over changing society or meeting human needs.

Insert Table 2
Here

The first element of each issue (See Appendix E) is a characteristic of traditional education; the second element is characteristic of field teaching

Issue I

The first issue is that education gives priority to changing people over changing society. This priority is best exemplified by the current emphasis upon behavior modification at professional conferences. An analysis of presentation titles listed in the 1970-73 Council for Exceptional Children and American Association on Mental Deficiency conference bulletins indicates a majority of the presentations focusing on people changing with presentations focusing on social organization analysis and changes in order to change

TABLE 2

ISSUES USED TO DERIVE FIELD TEACHING PROPOSITIONS

	PROPOSITIONS	
	A. Relationships Between Learner and Social Organization	B. Relationships Between Social Information and Social Influence/ Controls
I. Education Gives Priority To People Changing Over Changing Society	IA - IA, 5	
II. Community Organizing Gives Priority To Maintenance Over Meeting Human Needs		IIB - IIB.2

people, or attempts to change society a distant second. A second example is to review the brightly colored commercial materials huckstered in the exhibits of these conferences. The disproportionate emphasis on technique for altering people is understandable as an outgrowth of the capital intensive emphasis upon education, and that education is seen as a means for learning appropriate social roles for a competitive society.

Field teaching propositions regarding this issue involve raising consciousness of one's relative social position, of relative rights and responsibilities associated with various positions (including the availability of food, clothing, medical care, and schooling), and of social mobility opportunities. Salient learning is seen as relevant to learning to define and resolve social problems in ways which are to the advantage of the individual rather than a generalized other such as society.

Propositions about Relationships among Learner and Social Organization

Field Teaching Proposition IA

As the learner increasingly relates own thinking and activities to more general social processes (such as social mobility, acquiring sustenance resources like medical care, nutritious food, relevant education, and employment patterns), education increasingly is treated as a social-political process instead of just as personal growth and/or job preparation experience.

Field Teaching Proposition IA.1

The more the educative process is viewed as related to outside of school, the more individualized and specific may be the knowledge acquired and the skills developed by the learner.

Schooling by and large consists of mastering interpretations of other people's ideas - witness grade and secondary school required texts which present how-to arithmetic books instead of basic mathematical processes, history books which consist of much political interpretation about good and bad people and actions of the past, and English texts which emphasize creativity without use of basic rules of communication. Such interpretations provide a basis for generalizations and principles about the nature and needs of the universe, and for mastering techniques used by others to develop such generalizations and about the planning of future corporate social policies and practices. However, relatively litttle time or energy is directed toward solving immediate problems encountered by the learner, or to linking everyday street life and the struggle for existence in a competitive world with the current situation.

Field Teaching Proposition IA.2

As consciousness about social or personal problems rises, teacher emphasis shifts from task of people-changing to process of decision-making *per se* in educationally related activities as a political activity. These shifts proceed:

a. from unconscious awareness of relationships between learning and social processes to consciousness awareness.

b. from personal problems to social issues.

c. from focusing upon *means* of education to *ends* of any educative process.

Field Teaching Proposition IA.3

As consciousness of being "done-to" rises, educative processes change from teacher directed activity to learner directed activity.

Such processes produce changes in activities:

a. from an external to internal locus of control for learning.

b. from being done-to-doing-for-oneself or others.

c. from management by teacher specified learning objectives to student learning about specifying own learning objectives to management by learner specified objectives.

Field Teaching Proposition IA.4

As the learner increasingly specifies learning objectives, the field teacher increasingly serves as questioner who assists in outlining options for action available to learner.

a. educative process goes from people changing to society changing.

b. educative process goes from military to Socratic style.

c. teaching goes from key-holder-to-sum-of-all-knowledge to catalyzer of learner relevant activities.

Field Teaching Proposition IA.5

As learner increasingly makes decisions about alternative consequences of his own behavior, including educative activities, the function of the behavior changes from follower (from doing what others do or saying what others say or do) to that of initiator: to doing what seems appropriate or fits with current state of knowledge, power, and relevance for the learner and of significance to others.

Issue II

The second issue is that current community organizing allows maintenance, not change, of existing social arrangements. This priority is exemplified by the recent short·life of the Federal Office of Economic Opportunity. This office, ostensibly designed to fight poverty, is being phased out of existence even though approximately 30 million American citizens live below the economic level required for federal assistance.

Field teaching propositions regarding this issue involve the use of information as a social medium of exchange and thus of social power. For example, information is used to translate a mama's speculations into facts about her child's development. This translation is accomplished by making information previously private, public. Thus, scientific information contained in professional-technical jargon and journals is translated so it can apply to general and specific statements that relate to mama's situation.

When mama has the same understanding about the development of her child as does an expert, then mama has the option of knowingly accepting or rejecting the expert's counsel.

Propositions about Relationships among Social Information and Social Influence/Controls

Field Teacher Proposition IIB

Public information is more readily available for general procedures and goals (institutionalized) than for non-approved (deviant subcultural) norms.

As the quantity and quality of public information increases, the relevance to non-approved means for obtaining a goal is lessened. Once the faculty discover that student(s) use confidential files to obtain information ocncerning their graduate program, a lock is placed on the files. Such a procedure blocks that source of information, but suggests the importance of the information withheld. Such a public procedure as breaking the lock will not be done. However, the student will systematically collect relevant information from other sources and speculate regarding additional information because it is now public knowledge that information is withheld, and that privileged access is required to obtain the withheld information. Thus, the privileged information stratifies the parties involved into those who have access and those who do not have access. In the case of information regarding the evaluation of students by faculty members, the faculty have the privilege of access. However, in the case of the students' means to acquire general acceptance of competencies by faculty evaluators, students have privilege of access, and systematically restrict the faculty from such information except as it is beneficial to demonstrating competence.

Field Teacher Proposition IIB.1

As the amount of public information about educational procedures decreases, the amount of speculation regarding private information increases.

When decisions affecting student's goals are being made by persons other than that person, and such decisions are told to a limited number of confidants, speculation regarding these decisions will grow among colleagues.

In a restricted group, as speculation grows, the likelihood of correct information being merged with speculative ideas also grows. Those persons who piece together public information and then posit it to persons holding private information obtain a reaction to the posit. Such a reaction may be either ignoring, agreeing, and/or blocking the suggestion. Any of these responses provides additional public information for speculation unless current confidence alliances are broken and new alliances are established. Thus, when a decision regarding a student is made by faculty member(s), someone else is aware of a meeting taking place - the absence of a faculty member from his office, the presence of a memo to a clerical assistant, a comment overheard. These pieces of information may be collected simply by being present in a busy office. Such collections may be exchanged for accurate information in order to stop a rumor which will harm the public image of a faculty member or a student. When collections of speculation are not exchanged for accurate information, and when confidences do exist, an outside authority may attempt to halt the speculation of posing sanctions against the speakers. The imposition of sanctions will actually generate additional public information (by definition) and private information (student suddenly dropped from the program), and another cycle of speculation may be started. Thus, we are able to state an hypothesis about the relationship between information and educational procedures.

H: Speculation may be reduced by equalizing the quality and quantity of public information available to all parties concerned.

Such equalizing establishes a public source norm for judgement regarding the accuracy and influence of information.

Field Teacher Proposition IIB.2

The presence of private information held by the faculty is considered to have a negative rather than a positive potential effect upon the student, because (1) the informal means for achieving the desired degrees are not congruent with the formal means, (2) some of the informal means are recognized as not being approved by the faculty. Thus, the risk of using any set of means to obtain a formal goal varies with the speculated amount of private information withheld from the students.

DISCUSSION

Finally, change agents, known as field teachers initiate social change. At issue here is the concept that social change occurs in small linear steps rather than through diverse, multilateral moves. People change models are exemplified by medical and diagnostic priorities which assume that identification of a causal agent of a problem is possible. The logic is that if a cause of a problem can be identified, then ways can be developed to eliminate or at least reduce the impact of the problem.

The field teaching model recognizes that the universe consists of such a great number of interrelated phenomena that a single cause-effect statement about any phenomena is too simplistic to account for more general changes made in the social system. Therefore, the field teacher is trained to initiate multiple changes which effect the lives of community members at the organizational and institutional levels of a community.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CURRICULUM PLANNING SEQUENCE OF FIELD TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM

The HB major consists of three multi-staged components which can be identified as: HB Curricular Planning Activity Sequence, Table I, Development of Career and Course Objectives, Table II, and Selection of Field Work, Table III.

A student begins in the HB major with his statement of career goals and consultation with faculty members regarding appropriate competencies required to achieve these goals. If this does not occur, the student exits.

After the student has stated his career goals and required competencies, the student enters another phase of his Curricular Planning Activity Sequence.

The Development of Career and Course Objectives begins with a statement by the student of his career goals in behavioral terms. This statement of objectives makes use of the sample included as Table IV. If this does not occur, the student exits.

The next step is an outline of a proposed course of study for his entire program. If this does not occur, the student exits and restates his behavioral objectives and the outline for his proposed course of study.

The next step is to present the course of study to a faculty advisor for review, clarification, and approval. If this does not occur, the student exits to: (1) reconsider available courses and their relationship to career goals, (2) outline a new proposed course of study, (3) re-present to a faculty advisor for review, clarification, and approval.

The next step depends on the academic year of the student. If it is prior to the end of his third academic year, he registers for courses, if this does not occur, he exits.

At the end of his third academic year, his faculty advisor submits the course of study to the HB Curriculum Sub Committee. If the Curriculum Sub Committee does not accept the course of study, the student exits with a statement of deficiencies to be met. The deficiencies are then integrated with the course of study and re-presented to the faculty advisor for review, clarification, and approval and re-submitted to the HB Curriculum Sub Committee.

The next step is the submission by the student of the HB Coordinating Committee approved course of study to the Undergraduate Dean for his approval. If the Dean does not approve the course of study, the student exits and returns to his advisor with a statement of deficiencies to be met. The deficiencies are integrated with the course of study and re-submitted to the HB Curriculum Sub Committee and then to the Undergraduate Dean for reconsideration. When approved, the course of study is then returned to the student and filed with his advisor.

The next step is to register for courses.

After registering for courses, the student re-enters the HB Curricular Planning Activity Sequence.

The next step begins the selection of a task force. If this does not occur, the student exits and restates his career goals and relates them to field options and returns to his advisor with a new statement of career goals for faculty consultation regarding appropriate required competencies.

He then returns to the Development of Career and Course Objectives component for another set of decisions based on the new statement of career goals in behavioral terms.

Upon the selection of a task force, the student enters another phase of his HB Curricular Planning Activity Sequence.

The selection of field work and related program of study begins with a review of written information on the array of field opportunities, their purposes, and activities. If this does not occur, the student exits.

The next step is for the student to talk to other students and faculty about actual practices of various field settings. If this does not occur, the student exits and reviews the written information on field opportunities and relates it to his career goals.

The next step is for the student to observe actual field operations and/or planning sessions. If this does not occur, the student exits and reviews other field options and relates them to his career goals. He then talks to other students and faculty about actual practices of other field settings. He then returns to observe an actual field operation and/or planning sessions. If this does not occur, the student exits and reviews other field options and relates them to his career goals. He then talks to other students and faculty about actual practices of other field settings. He then returns to observe an actual field operation and/or planning session.

The next step is to select and join a field project. If this does not occur, the student exits to observe other opportunities of actual field operation and then returns to select and join a field project.

The next step is to identify competencies required to perform in field settings. If this does not occur, the student exits to meet with vertical team members (HB Task Force). He selects and joins a new field project and returns to identify competencies required to perform in field settings.

The next step is to select courses and course content related to How and Why these competencies are to be developed. If this does not occur, the student exits to meet with his faculty advisor for extension, clarification, and approval. He then re-identifies the competencies required to perform in the field setting and returns to select courses and course content related to How and Why these competencies are to be developed.

After this has been completed, the student re-enters the HB Curricular Planning Activity Sequence.

If the student is in his second semester and prerequisite courses for advanced work in Human Behavior have not occurred, the student exits to restate course needs in relation to field options. He then returns for a restatement of career goals and appropriate required competencies and a reassessment of the other two components of the sequence, (2) Development of Career and Course Objectives and (3) Selection of Field Work and Related Program of Study.

If the prerequisites have been met or if the student is in his first semester, he selects adjunct courses. If appropriate courses are not selected, the student exits and restates his course needs in relation to field options. He then returns for a re-statement of career goals and appropriate required competencies and a reassessment of the other two components of the sequence, (2) Development of Career and Course Objectives and (3) Selection of Field Work and Related Program of Study.

The next step and final phase of the first semester of any academic year, is the cumulative evaluation of student activities and acquisition of skills.

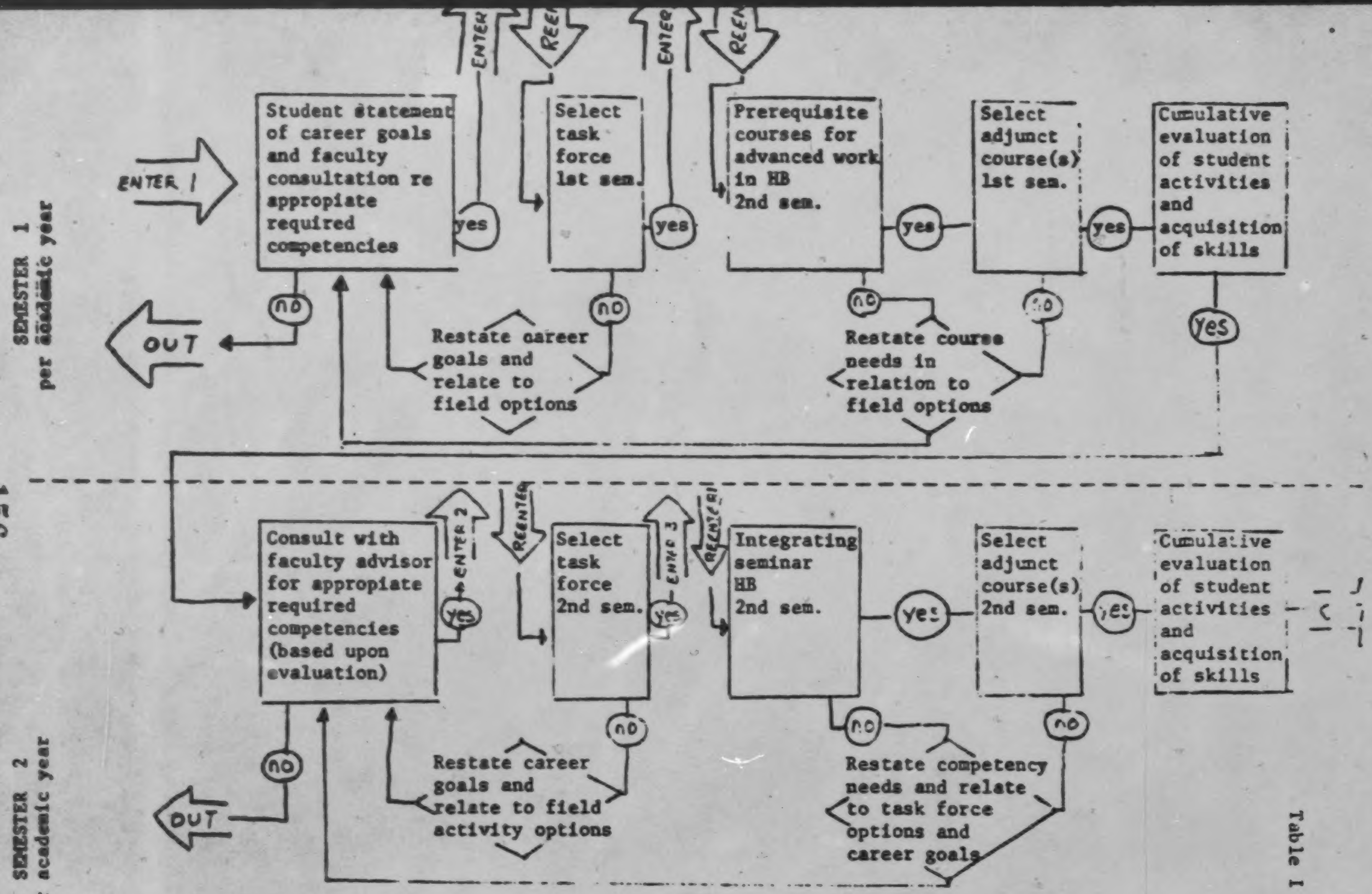
The initial step of the second semester of an academic year is a consultation with a faculty advisor for appropriate required competencies based upon the cumulative evaluation of the previous semester. If this does not occur, the student exits.

After appropriate required competencies have been agreed upon by the student and his advisor, he enters the second component as he did during the first semester.

At this step the sequence as outlined earlier continues each semester until the student completes or leaves the HB Major.

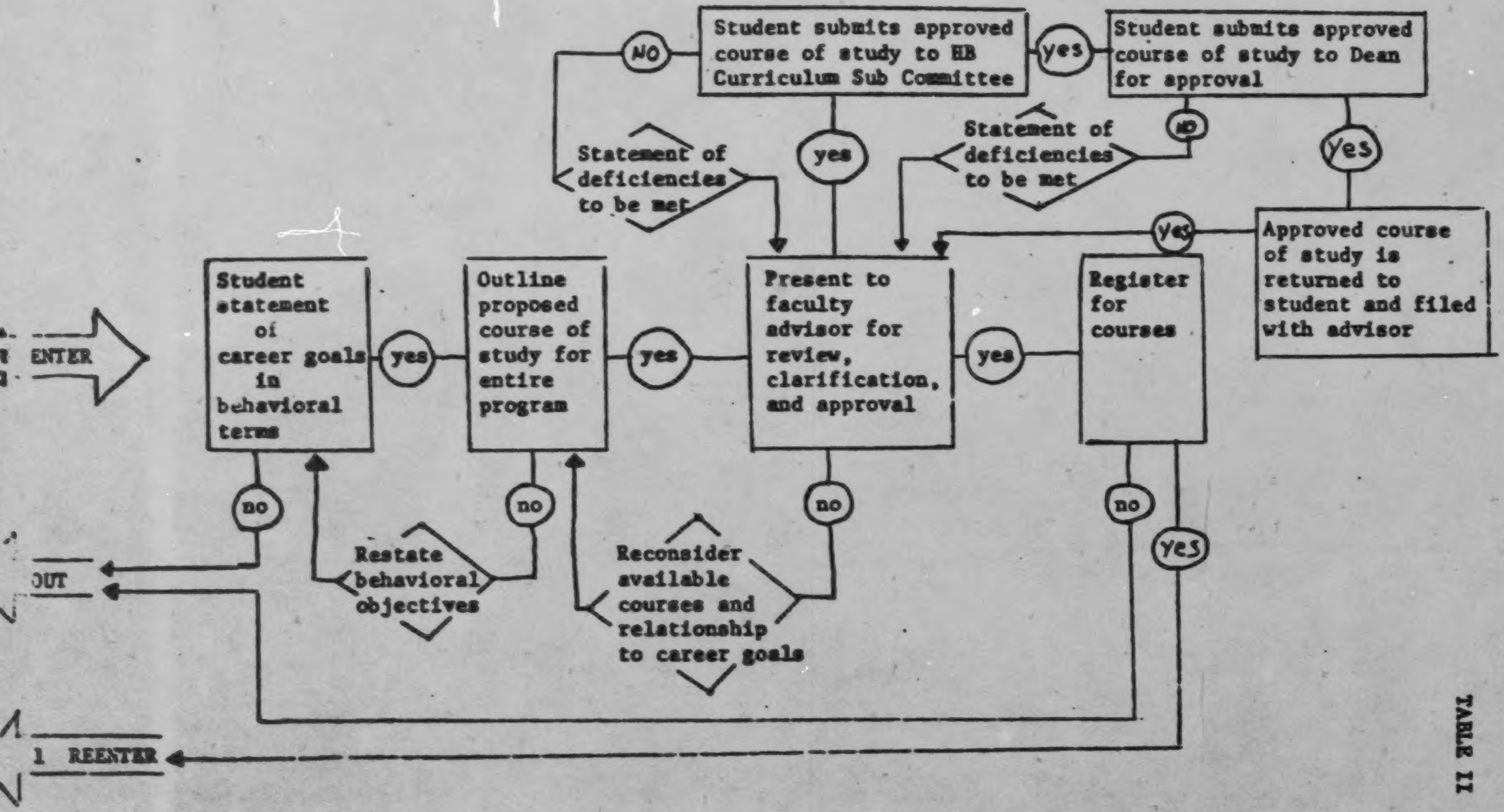
February, 1971 (reviewed procedure outline)
July, 1971 (prepared in current draft)

Table I


SEMESTER 1
per academic year
ENTER 1
Student statement of career goals and faculty consultation re appropiate required competencies
yes
no
OUT
ENTER
REEN
Select task force 1st sem.
yes
no
Restate career goals and relate to field options
ENTER
REEN
Prerequisite courses for advanced work in HB 2nd sem.
yes
no
Select adjunct course(s) 1st sem.
yes
no
Restate course needs in relation to field options
Cumulative evaluation of student activities and acquisition of skills
yes
SEMESTER 2
per academic year
Consult with faculty advisor for appropiate required competencies (based upon evaluation)
yes
ENTER 2
no
OUT
REENTER
Select task force 2nd sem.
yes
ENTER 3
no
Restate career goals and relate to field activity options
REENTER
Integrating seminar HB 2nd sem.
yes
no
Select adjunct course(s) 2nd sem.
yes
no
Restate competency needs and relate to task force options and career goals
Cumulative evaluation of student activities and acquisition of skills

HB CURRICULAR PLANNING ACTIVITY SEQUENCE:
Decision Points and Contingencies

TABLE II


ENTER
Student statement of career goals in behavioral terms
yes
Outline proposed course of study for entire program
yes
Present to faculty advisor for review, clarification, and approval
yes
Register for courses
Student submits approved course of study to HB Curriculum Sub Committee
yes
Student submits approved course of study to Dean for approval
NO
Statement of deficiencies to be met
yes
NO
Statement of deficiencies to be met
Yes
Approved course of study is returned to student and filed with advisor
yes
no
Restate behavioral objectives
no
no
Reconsider available courses and relationship to career goals
no
yes
OUT
1 REENTER

DEVELOPMENT OF CAREER AND COURSE OBJECTIVES:

Faculty and Student Decisions

APPENDIX B

A PARADIGM FOR ANALYSIS OF EXCEPTIONALITIES: NOTES ON CHOICE POINTS AND ALTERNATIVES IN LABELING SOMEONE DIFFERENT*

by

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The Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities (PAE) is a logical sequence of choice points and alternatives available for labeling someone as different. This paradigm is a pattern outlining possible relationships among selected phenomena included in decision making processes available for labeling. This paradigm may be used to understand the processes resulting in calling someone retarded and then treating him in a unique manner.

A paraphrased old story might provide an example of the potential influence of these processes.

> A committee was asked to construct an elephant out of a cube of ice. They agreed to remove what was not implicit in the concept elephant. Without further discussion, each committee member began using a chisle and hammer to chip ice. The small chips melted, and the original block of ice grew consistantly smaller. No closer agreed upon representation of a live elephant was accomplished than with the original cube.

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The committee started direct activity without an explicit, corporate understanding of where they were entering the decision making process. Once the committee members began chipping, a portion of the ice-block which could have been shaped into a number of other forms was removed. Successive chips of ice logically resulted in a corresponding loss of successive alternatives. The results were predictable; the prediction was accurate: the committee constructed a puddle of luke warm water rather than an ice-elephant.

An implicit correspondence seems to exist between committee made decisions regarding the block of ice and the decision making processes available for calling someone retarded. Once the sequence of decisions has been entered, successive alternatives are considered and either accepted or rejected. Previously possible independent alternatives are selected by default. Another example may illustrate the selection of prior and successive alternatives.

A person runs in front of you. This event of running may be considered as a complex phenomena which can occur in numerous variations - e.g., fast or slow running; running within two inches or 20 yards of you. By describing the event as related to running, the observer fails to include descriptions of physical height, color of eyes, family life style, club memberships and other facets of the actors daily life. Describing these phenomena as running circumscribes the range of observations considered relevant. Observations regarding alternative phenomena are not available, these were selected out of the situation by default. In other words, a statement describing running defines the situation under observation.

The running may occur in numerous contexts, each context providing variations in the meaning of running - e.g., when Greg ran across the tops of desks in a class, the teacher considered that inappropriate behavior;

when he won a 50 yard dash at P.E., the same teacher considered running suitable for commendation. Some situations are defined as being appropriate for running, others as not appropriate. The reference point selected for judgments of appropriateness serves as one element in defining an observed situation. Thus, alternative definitions of situations are excluded by the process of selection. Successive selections may be plotted to describe the decision making process used for labeling someone retarded, and then acting in a manner related to that label. A suggested pattern for plotting these decisions is PAE.

A Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities

A Paradigm[1] for Analysis of Exceptionalities (PAE) is suggested as a basis for a systematic understanding of literature and practices concerning the exceptional individual. This understanding is based upon a differentiation and re-ordering of ideas and concepts into a taxonomy of choice-points and alternative choices. Each choice-point and alternative is considered to represent a qualitative influence upon the treatment of exceptional individuals. A relevant future consideration will be a quantitative analysis of the influence of these ideas and concepts upon treatment.

PAE is a suggested complement to the current problem-solution perspective used as the basis for identification and treatment of exceptional individuals. PAE may be used as the basis for selecting priorities of problem areas related to initiating legislative changes, and for the reorganization and mobilization of resources for understanding the human existence of exceptional individuals.

The basic rationale for PAE is that persons and organizations which focus upon exceptional individuals follow patterns of activity in carrying out these foci. PAE is an explicit effort to provide a framework for the observation, systematization, and extention of the patterns or rules currently followed in the problem-solution method of identifying and treating exceptional individuals. Relevant observers, systematizers, and initiators of patterns of activity include parents, professionals, and government workers as members of organizations or as independents.

PAE does not provide an analytic base for understanding why certain alternatives are selected at various choice-points. PAE is a logical construct of reality; questions about the reasons alternatives are selected deal with value decisions, and should be considered within a framework of axiology. A systematic study of the variations of values placed upon alternatives at each choice-point would complement PAE. Such a study should be possible by observing current treatments of exceptional children in terms of contexts including education, politics, economics, and philanthropy. In addition, a possible future merging of logical and axiological constructs regarding the treatment of exceptional individuals may lead to additional theories of exceptionalities.

PAE is designed as one basis for systematically considering which alternatives are available in the decision making process related to calling someone exceptional. PAE was assembled by using intuitive processes, critical comments from reviewers, and some naive notions of formal logic.

The alternatives in PAE are arranged into groups. The groups are ordered into a logical sequence. As stated above, the first of the sequence considers the origin of the idea related to exceptionalities; the middle of the sequence is given to considering the phenomena as it exists in the daily activities of humans. The last of the sequence is given to considering the disposition of each phenomena observed, especially as the dispositions relate to persons labeled exceptional.

Insert Table Here

Four basic sets of alternatives are suggested as being included in the decision-making process to call someone exceptional. Each of these sets is called a choice-point[2]. A choice-point is simply another name indicating the presence of the opportunity to select one or more alternatives at a given stage of the decision-making sequence. The choices may be selected by explicit efforts, or by default. Some of these choice-points are explicitly considered by professional educators, academicians, and legislative bodies. Others are implied by persons writing definitions of various types of exceptional children[3].

The choice-points and alternatives in PAE are arranged in a sequence of logical prerequisite assumptions. The sequence is based upon a continuously chained set of choices which follow a cumulative, circular pattern. The cumulative pattern includes that the first choice of an alternative provides the pre-conditions for remaining choices. The second choice (which was pre-conditioned by the first choice) serves as a pre-condition for remaining choices. This process continues until alternatives are selected at all choice-points. The circular pattern is obtained by considering the first set of choices to serve as the pre-conditions for a subsequent set of choices. This circular arrangement functions to provide an increase of information (in the form of pre-conditions) rather than disjointed single events for the person interested in observing and understanding hum existence.

A single set of choice-points considered in PAE include (1) pre-conceptions regarding phenomena to be observed, (2) observation sets and methods, (3) daily activity involving observed events, and (4) representations of reality.

1. Pre-conceptions regarding phenomena to be observed. The first choice-point for the observer of a phenomenon of human existence concerns his preconceptions of that which the observer examines. Pre-conditions include those ideas of reality, biases, prejudices, styles of thinking, and past experiences with related phenomena which influence the observation patterns and segments of observed daily phenomena. Such pre-conditions implicitly include a collection of experiences related to concepts of exceptionalities. In popular terms, preconceptions include the attitude an observer has regarding another person - i.e., mongoloids are inferior to other people; deaf persons are dumb. In terms of human engineering, per-conceptions include the historical experiences of the observer with the phenomenon he will study.

Preconceptions about reality may be divided into three additional alternatives.

(a) rational world - one means is assumed to exists to achieve an end: grand design is assumed to exists and is assumed to lead to emphasis upon developing a technology(ies) either to describe or to prescribe human activity; assumption is made that observers can eventually understand all activities in the world;

(b) non-rational world - very complex world is assumed to exists; (i) too many events exist to understand all, therefore spontaneous events will occur; (ii) scientists attempt to understand those portions of reality which are open to observations; (iii) an assumption is made that observers can include an acknowledgment of the relationship of various phenomena to each other;

(c) ir-rational world - an assumption is made that observers will be unable to understand what is occuring because a pattern does not seem to exist; (i) generally considered as bizarre perspective of the world; (ii) does not seem to lead to greater understanding of concepts of retardation or other exceptionalities as currently defined.

2. Observation Sets and Methods. The second choice-point consists of observation sets and methods which the observer selects.

(a) Observation sets include those various perspectives of reality used by the observer. They define the type of information gathered and the portion of reality studied. The observer may consider himself to be a scientist, and therefore consider that scientists do certain activities during their observations that layment do not do.[4] Such a distinction between the two types of attitudes regarding which activities are appropriate during observation of daily activities is a choice which occurs either implicitly or explicitly by the investigator.

The observation set used by behavioral engineers is that science includes the prediction and control of behavior. Such a set predisposes the observer of human activity to see those phases of phenomena which he will attempt to control. Recognition of limited technical means to control an event conceivably leads to limited interests in the total existence of the human. Such limits allow for accepting an outsider's opinion that a given behavior is inappropriate (for whatever reason) and should be changed. The limited perspective of prediction and control may be technically possible, but may be politically disasterous to the exceptional individual if "someone" decides their behavior should be eliminated. By contrast, an observation set of a sociologist-anthropologist may be to describe and explain the gross varieties of human existence. Such a limited observation set is vulnerable to the charge of allowing oppression to exist without presenting any means to oppose it.

(b) Observation methods include those systematic procedures used to pursue a given observation set. They define the operational limits of validity and reliability of those portions of reality intended for study. For example, Gouldner (1954) described in some detail what a student-investigative team actually did during a field study of industrial bureaucracy. This description includes a discussion of the logic of the controlled experiment used with a field study method.[5] Another example of observation methods is taken from the writing of Kirk (1966) who suggested specific diagnostic steps which lead to developing a remedial, educational program for a child. Such a diagnostic procedure functions as a method for systematically pursuing a perspective that individual differences of cognitive abilities exist during a given point in time.[6] Such a perspective may be pursued by the use of a systematic procedure, or the pursuit may be explained in terms of a system of diagnosis. Either way, the observer must do something in order to obtain information regarding daily activity. In both of these examples, the procedures for action by the observer are considered as a method. The procedures of observing may be explained to other persons so that they may also see the same portions of reality studied by the first observer. The explanation of the observation methods may take the form of requesting the second observer to "look at the running boy and count the number of steps he takes,"[7] or it may consist of instructing the observer to ask the boy if he "is tired after running across the field."[8] Whatever the instructions are to the observer, these instructions may be considered in terms of their relationship to other choice-points in analyzing problems associated with exceptional individuals.

3. Daily activity: observed event. The third choice-point concerns the event of daily activity which is observed. This activity includes such phenomena as reading, walking, growing, teacher-pupil learning interaction, cognitive style variables in the mentally retarded, the level of phenylalinine in the blood, the administration of an intelligence test, genetic study of rats, and/or the value structure of a group of Reservation Indians. The environment in which these activities occur include the home, school, community, residential institutions, and laboratories. Daily activity to be observed may be any event which an observer considered as relevant to questions he asks. In the case of the mother who has a Down's Syndrome child, she may ask, "Why was this kind of child born to me?" Such a question may be answered by referring to studies of genetic analysis, literature concerning the probability of abnormalities in high-risk pregnancies

among selected socio-economic classes, and religious rationales. A teacher may ask, "Why is this very active child making poor academic progress?" A psychologist interested in cognition might refer to concepts of style and tempo. A social psychologist interested in classroom interaction patterns might explain the behavior in terms of classroom management techniques. Each of these types of answers has a correlated set of information in professional literature. The literature has its own focus upon a portion of reality considered relevant as an observed event in daily activity. These various foci of literature and the interests of persons in natural activities of living beings serve as events which may be observed.

4. Representations of reality. Representations of reality are a set of choice-points which compress and translate information regarding daily activities. Obviously, observers are unable to see everything that occurs at any point in time - e.g., while an observer counts the number of steps a runner takes, he is unable also to record all of the chemical reactions which were concurrent with this running. By the same reasoning, the observer is unable completely to record all of the variations of cultural motivation which propelled the runner during his sprint. Limitations on which portion of daily activity the observer recorded may be systematically defined and modified.[9] However, no matter how extensive the observations may be, it is assumed that the recordings will be an incomplete reproduction of the original events. Such incomplete replications are representations of reality.

Two basic perspectives exist to represent the daily activity of a child, or for that matter, to represent any observed event. These two perspectives include (a) a descriptive, static hierarchy of influences and controls, and (b) a prescriptive representation of the dynamic processes of a phenomenon. Both of these perspectives are considered as independent variables, and are considered legitimate domains of study without focusing upon the other. A relevant question for further investigation is the empirical extent of independence between these perspectives when exceptional children are the focus of study.

a. Descriptive-static hierarchy. The descriptive-static hierarchy is composed of levels of analysis similar to those used by Parsons (1966) for explaining the social action system. The focus of the descriptive elements of the hierarchy outlines the status quo of the observed event. The focus of the static elements of the hierarchy arrange these observations into four levels of orientation. Each level has its own foci of interest, and represents a self-contained set of expectations regarding these foci. These expectations for the foci of interest correspond to the academic disciplines of anthropology (interest in cultural phenomena), sociology (interest in social phenomena), psychology (interest in psychic phenomena) and physics (interest in the physical and material aspects of existence).[10]

In addition to the academic disciplines, each level of the hierarcy has various technical occupations and ancillary vocations which developed around at least one focus of a given level. For example, psychometrists have become an active subspecialty of those persons interested in psychic phenomena. Psychometrists focus upon the technical aspects of assessment by developing and administering tests, rating sheets and other measurement devices. Similar specialties which have developed around technical skills related to dealing with life problems are observed in medicine (nursing, anesthesiology) sociology (pollsters, census takers) and education (administrators, teachers, curriculum developers).

Elements within the static hierarchy are arranged in order of generality of influence and control over each other. An assumption is made that the most microscopic units of consideration - e.g., the rules of physics which govern the chemical constituency of the human body - influence the psychic, social, and cultural activities of the unit under study. A further assumption is that the most macroscopic units - e.g., cultural patterns such as eating habits - control the social, psychic, and physiological-material activities of the components of that culture. Thus, the elements of the hierarchy are arranged in an ascending hierarchy of influence, and in a descending hierarchy of control.[11]

Descriptive representations of reality lead to discussions of Problem Types and Problem Dispositions. Problem Areas are derived from the various choices within alternative levels and schema development. Levels of representation include the components of the hierarchy of influence and of control. Schema developments refer to the rationale, definitions, and indices which are an operational definition of a given level of representation. If one level of representation of reality is selected - e.g., social - the schema development includes the combination of rationale, definitions and indices used to differentiate that level from another - e.g., from physical .

For example, two observers are watching two young men talking on a street corner. One assumption held by one observer of the social level of representing reality might be that two or more role-holders must engage in some sort of interaction - e.g., talk to each other. A definition of talking to each other would be sending and receiving of verbal sounds. An index of talking at the social level of representation is the number of words each participant utters during a two minute period. The schema development for the social level of representation is that talking is social interaction comprised of variations of sending and receiving verbal sounds. Talking may be measured by counting the number of sounds sent by each role-holder to all other role-holders in this network.

The other observer may assume that talking is the movement of air up through the trachia of one person and formed into different sounds within the mouth. Two indices of talking are the volume of air exhaled through the mouth and the number of tongue movements to form each sound made.

Both the social and physical level of representation or reality may consider the same phenomena: two men talking. However, they are observing different parts of the phenomena, and may thus answer two different kinds of questions. The sociologist may answer questions concerning the frequency of occurrence of certain word patterns between various role-holders. The physician may answer questions about the positioning of the tongue in the mouth when certain volumes of air are exhaled. Both schemas have served a purpose for answering two different questions. Neither schema would have achieved the same answer for the same question for the other investigator if he did not use exactly the same schema.

If one level of representation of reality is selected, and the schema development used to describe an observed phenomenon in daily activity is consistant with those used to define that level selected, then variations in observed daily activities may be explained as Generic Problems. Generic problems exist when variation in one index or observation which is defined in terms of one set of assumptions occurs in greater quantity or quality than is considered appropriate. This variation may be in terms of physical, pyschic, social, or cultural phenomena, depending upon which definitions are being used. Thus, generic problems are logical extensions of schema development: variations in schema development plus a value judgment that variation is too great yield a Generic Problem.

If the same level is selected and the same phenomenon is observed, but the schema development to describe the observed phenomenon is not consistant with those used to define the level, then variations in observed daily behavior are explained as Derived Problems: i.e., if there are variations in the level of representation, or a change in the schema development, then a Derived Problem results. For example, the sociologist might consider cognative ability as an index related to talking, and therefore related it to his assumption of activities of role-holders in a network of exchanging meaningful sounds by considering the influence of cognitive tempo on length of human interaction. This time the sociologist has used indices of cognition (a psychic phenomenon) to investigate problems of human interaction (a social phenomenon). Such an investigation is of a derived problem: problem including a schema developed from two or more levels of representations of reality.

If the disposition of the problem is based upon the same assumptions of level and schema, then a Primary Disposition of the problem results. For example, the sociologist considers that the variation of frequency of talking by one member is greater than it should be, he decides to decrease the number of times that man talks. Also, if a disposition for either a generic or derived problem is not developed from within the same level and the same schema as the problem, then a Secondary Disposition results. For example, if the frequency of talking is considered too low for the one man, and the sociologist decides to initiate dream analysis with him then this would be a secondary disposition.

The relative length of time considered as appropriate for the focus of developing a problem is also relevant. An immediate problem (crisis problem) - e.g., Johnny hit George - may call for a task oriented focus for disposing of the problem. A chronic problem - e.g., Navajo children losing the historical significance of non-competition within their tribe - may focus upon developing pluralistic value orientations within a formal education program. Concerns for length of time considered appropriate for the focus of developing a problem are implicit in the schema development but are not elaborated here.

b. Prescriptive representation of dynamic processes. The dynamic processes are considered to be prescriptive statements about observed events. The basic assumptions of the prescriptive representations include (1) the movement of space through time and (2) an explicit effort to produce an alteration in either the content or structure of the space by whatever means are considered appropriate and effective. The focus of objective study of the prescriptive representations is upon the rationale and means to produce a particular type of change. Secondary concerns include descriptions of the beginning and terminal events to be changed.

Change is measured in terms of some type of content - i.e., language use, social welfare programs, classroom interaction patterns. The measurement of change assumes movement in that content in terms of time and space. Time (T) is defined as an index of a sequence of events and/or the duration of the observed event. Space (S) is defined as an index of the content being considered. A description of the measurement of change includes the notion that at T_1 (Time One) the observer noted S_1 (Space One); later, at T_2, the observer again noted what was earlier called S_1. Differences in S which occurred between T_1 and T_2 are considered as the amount of change produced.

A prescriptive representation of reality includes an effort to alter S_1 at T_1 to $\widetilde{S_1}$ at T_2. An example of prescriptive representations of dynamic processes is to explicitly attempt to change IQ scores (space boundaries) on a Stanford-Binet, Form L-M (space content) during a nine month academic year (Time One is the beginning of the academic year; Time Two is the end of that nine month period) by whatever means are decided

The prescribed changes or the initiation of dynamic processes have not always been as effective as the implementers might have desired; nor have they been as efficient as an outsider might think appropriate. In any case, the critical reader of literature regarding prescriptive change[12] will need to consider (1) the purposes of the reporters, (2) the rationales, concepts, and indices for achieving these purposes, and (3) the relatively limited guidelines for producing change which have been accumulated for use. Future considerations may be given to a more thorough evaluation of these prescriptive processes.

Summary. The Paradigm for Analysis of Exceptionalities is a suggested structure for considering (1) what is called exceptional individual and (2) different ways for dealing with them once identified. PAE is based upon choice-points and selected alternatives. PAE is suggested as an example of one approach to considering the decision making process for calling someone different rather than or in addition to relying upon the current problem-solution orientation.

FOOTNOTES

1. A paradigm is a pattern. Many patterns exist regarding phenomena we call life. Examples of well known patterns include the periodic table which is an arrangement of elements according to atomic weights, S-R relationships used to explain, perdict, and control animal behavior, and the philogenetic hierarchy used to account for variations in forms of life. Each of these patterns is a paradigm.

This paradigm is not a theory, but is a taxonomy of concepts which provides the basis for systematically asking questions concerning the existence and control of exceptionalities. These questions and their subsequent answers will provide additional understandings of reasons why persons are treated in differential ways by various segments of a social system.

See Cohen (1966, pp. 41-106) for a discussion of the major theoretical concepts concerning deviance and control. See Levine (1961) for proposed theoretical framework for special education, and suggestion that the current lack of theoretical propositions has limited the sources of variations - i.e., disability leads to rejection or incompetence - as explanatory variables.

2. Choice-points refer to a critical point of decision-making which provide a change in the qualitative nature of the units being considered. For a discussion of critical points and alternatives, see Schwab (1960). A choice-point is considered as the critical point where the investigator or practitioner makes a decision as to which alternative to select.

3. Leland (1964) criticized the inadequacy of the official American Association on Mental Deficiency definition of mental retardation because not enough recognition was given to the social aspects of defining a person incompetent. In preparing the rationale and definition of mental retardation which was officially accepted by AAMD, Heber (1960) stressed biological and psychological factors and provided only nominal recognition of the social aspects. In light of the body of knowledge available at the time of the manuscript preparation and acceptance, this criticism may be considered a charge against the field rather than against that author and the organization he represented. Such charges, criticisms, and extensions of existing definitions should be reviewed in light of possible decision points which influence the type of treatment the exceptional child receives.

4. See Schuetz (1953) and Shepherd (1964) for an academic discussion of (a) the attitude of everyday life, (b) the scientific attitude, and (c) the differences between the two perspectives. Berger and Luckman (1966) presented a discussion of the foundations of knowledge in everyday life, and of society as objective and subjective reality. Bijou and Baer (1961) presented a theory of human psychological development from the viewpoint of natural sciences which contrasted and complemented Durkheim's (1938) classic discussion of the validity of the application of scientific techniques to the study of social phenomena.

5. Many excellent discussions are available regarding the use of experimental designs. One of these is a monograph by Campbell and Stanley (1966) which examines 16 designs against 12 common threats to valid inference. Another by Blalock (1964) presents rules of causal inference which seem most useful to the practicing social scientist.

6. For a more complete discussion of intra-individual differences in children, see Kirk (1962; 1966). Based upon the assumption that intra-individual differences can be identified in a child, McCarthy and Kirk (1961) presented the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities for evaluating such differences. Other tests designed to assess intra-individual differences include the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (1944) and Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (1949). Methods developed for differentiating intra-individual abilities included the task-oriented analysis of academic materials (Bereiter and Englemann, 1966), and behavioral analysis of childhood activities. (Bijou and Baer, 1961).

7. This method of observing limits the observer's procedures to frequency counts of "naturalistic" phenomena. Other alternatives of naturlistic phenomena which this observer might tally include (1) the state of tension of given muscle groups within the body during the running, (2) the number of eye blinks the child made during the beginning and ending quarters of the run, and (3) the ratio of breaths taken to heart beats made during the middle of the up hill portion of the run. Those portions of phenomena which were observed and counted depended upon the questions which the observer attempts to answer. He did not replicate reality, therefore he was selective in his representations of reality. One of the influencing factors of this selection procedure is the method system he used to collect his data.

8. Maccoby and Maccoby (1954) considered use of the interview method as a means of obtaining the subjects viewpoint of the research question asked.

9. Examples of modifications of these limitations include the use of research teams to record observations. Each member of these teams was assigned a different portion of reality as his responsibility to observe and record, thus increasing the quantity of individual observations while maintaining a similar quality of information.

10. Parsons (1966) suggested four interaction environments of social systems: (a) behavioral organism (most microscopic level). (b) personality system, (c) social system, and (d) cultural system (most macroscopic level). The terminology has been changed in this paper because not all of Parsons' assumptions have been met to assume transfer to PAF.

11. Parsons (1966) called this a hierarchy of conditioning and control. These labels and their related assumptions are accepted for the purposes of this suggested paradigm.

12. See Heiny (N.D.), for a selected annotated listing of references related to explicit efforts to produce changes in educational, psychological, and other social contexts.

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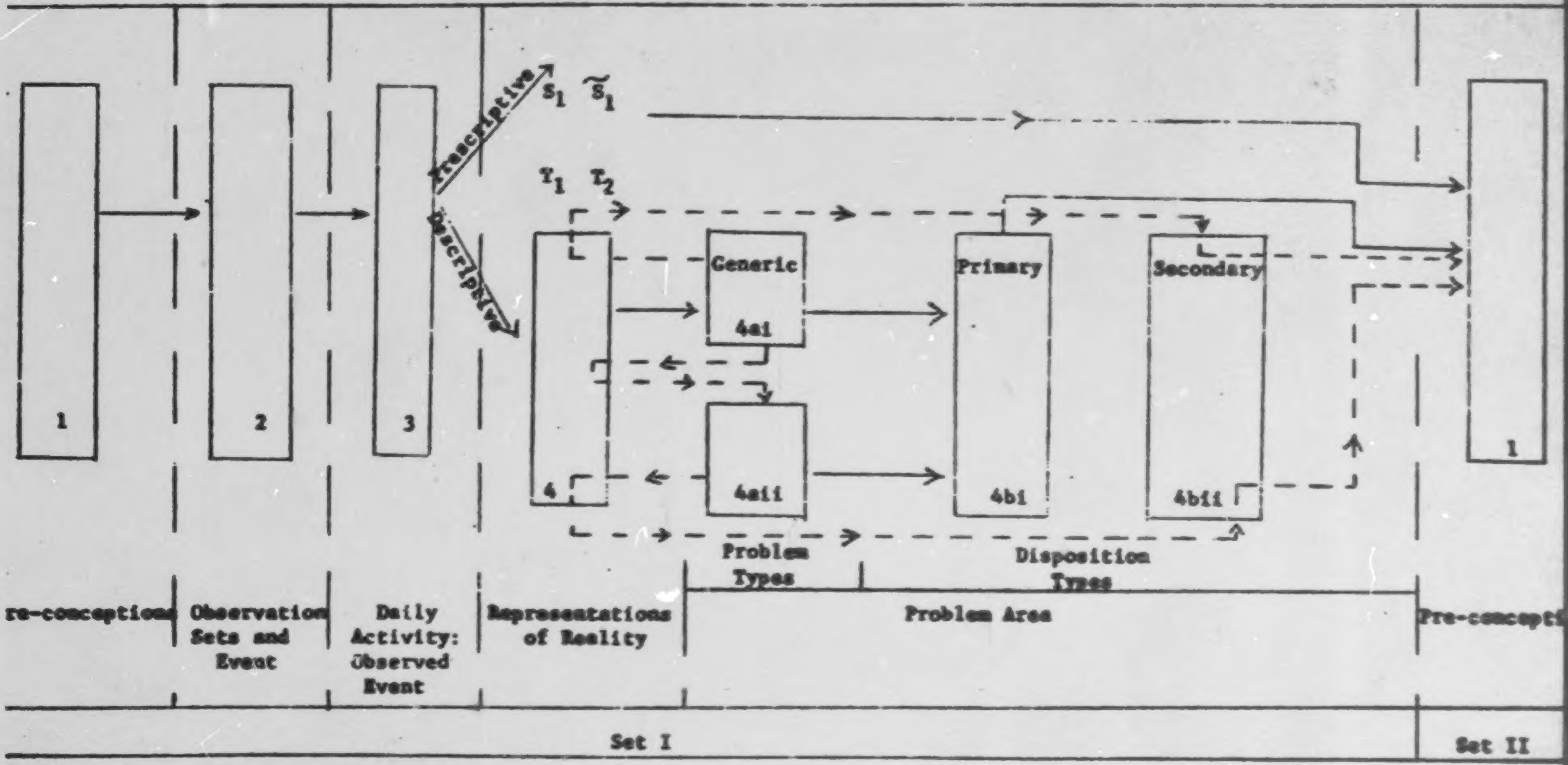
TABLE 1

Paradigm For Analysis of Exceptionalities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1
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re-conception
Observation Sets and Event
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Set II

⟶ indicate direction of decision making using logically consistent assumptions, definitions, indices
⇢ indicate direction of decision making using variations in assumptions, definitions, indices

APPENDIX C

Ideal Field Teacher Training Program
Curriculum Content

In order for the field teacher apprentice to become knowledgable prior to working in a community and with community people, demonstrate intellectual competence with basic concepts of various social science disciplines and are familiar with more general, topical literature presented by academic and popular presses. The ideal curriculum includes a knowledge of various institutional systems, including political, economic, legal, social, health, and educational systems. A knowledge of these systems is required of all apprentices.

Political Systems:

Information is needed by field teachers in order to understand political systems and to affect decision making in the political process. Coursework and content. Courses dealing with (1) public decision making, (2) urban problems, and (3) urban studies should be stressed.

1) Public decision making. Since decisions made by governmental and political agencies affect the lives of individuals within a community, a familiarity with the factors, organization and procedures which influence public decision making is appropriate. The field teacher can then apply this information in community action as the community begins to react on its own behalf.

2) Urban problems. The field teacher should be familiar with

concepts concerning the politics of poverty: (a) malnutrition, (b) concepts regarding "haves and have nots", (c) socialism vs. free enterprise, and (d) the political decisions affecting the budgeting and financing of projects.

3) Urban studies. Familiarity with existant studies, methods of performing urban studies and literature about their findings will complete the total awareness of the student with a research based orientation.

Fieldwork. A field teacher trainee whould become involved in not only the obvious, e.g., election campaigns and voter registration drives, but also in on-going political decision making committees and programs in local governments. These include working with or monitoring Model Cities programs, city budget commissions and state finance committees.

Readings. A major reading recommended is Political Science: The discipline and its dimensions: An Introduction (Wasby 1970). Also recommended are popular readings on urban politics and interest groups, such as the periodicals: Society and Social Policy.

Legal Systems:

It is necessary that the field teacher is also familiar with legal systems. This legal perspectus would help delimit very specific and functional courses of action (i.e., litigation, legislation, identification of legal rights) which can be pursued by community people. Coursework and content. The most appropriate method for dealing with legal systems would involve coursework concerning a familiarity with terminology and specific case studies. This information is available at most law libraries in such specific publications as Corpus Juris Secundum, Jurisprudence, The Poverty Law Reporter and the Juvenile Law Reporter. The implications of course content would be applied in an internship program.

Field work. An appropriate field experience would be to assist lawyers and law students in researching as well as in drafting, briefs for cases. The field teacher apprentice could assist persons involved in specific types of legal strategy, examples would be: (1) assisting in setting up a juvenile clinic through Vanderbilt Law School; and (2) assisting in a class action suit for "rights to education" with the Tennessee Association for Retarded Children and Adults.

Readings. In addition to those bodies of literature noted above a lay understanding of the terminology and a competency in getting to specific law references would be required.

Economic Systems:

Inherent in understanding political processes includes an awareness of the economic basis of a community as well as the economic procedures of society as a whole. The implications of such a system contribute directly to the interactional basis of community action or implementation of programs.

Coursework and Content. Again coursework is most helpful in handling technicalities in terminology and concepts. Topics such as macro-economics, economics, the economics of health, and national income analysis are necessary in the breadth of .equired understanding. Courses in Business Administration, especially dealing with industrial and trade unionism are also relevant. With this background, a working awareness of the economic jargon and a means of analysis will be available.

Economic courses include:

1. economics of the ghetto
2. macroscopic economics and social forces

Fieldwork. Areas of field experiences would include:

1. state planning commission
2. Metro planning commission
3. state or local employment commissions
4. international trade development program operated by Third National Bank
5. loan department of finance companies
6. loan departments of any of the local banks
7. federal reserve bank
8. Genesco Corporation, especially the marketing department
9. marketing consultant program at UT-Nashville

These areas most especially would offer the opportunity to ask questions about economics in order to understand the rationale for decisions being made by various organization.

Readings. a) Readings can be classified into four categories: (1) introduction to economics--e.g., Heilbroner (1964); (2) big business--e.g., Caves (1964); (3) popular issues--e.g., Dolan (1971), Miller and Williams (1972), and North and Miller (1971); and (4) philosophy of economics--e.g., Edwards (1966). b) Furthermore, assistance in technical terms could be supplemented with the McGraw Hill publication titled, Dictionary of Modern Economics: A Handbook of Terms and Organizations, 1965.

Social Systems:

In order to understand the relationships between economic, political and the legal systems, a sociological awareness is useful.

Coursework and Content. Theoretical concept dealt within coursework is necessary. These concepts include:

1. Sociology of education
2. Political Sociology
3. Urban community
4. Social Problems
5. Sociological methods course
6. (political science) - Politics of the Urban Community

In addition, research methodologies and data collection techniques should be stressed in order that the apprentice understand how to gather and analyze information regarding social issues relevant to the lives of community people.

Fieldwork. Apprentice experiences for the field teacher might include: (1) interviewing staff members of public health programs, and (2) becoming familiar with employment trends and research data that are being gathered through the University of Tennessee-Nashville. It would also be beneficial for each apprentice to work with an existing community organization but not necessarily in a research role. This can be accomplished by working in a Community Action Program or similiar program and doing whatever is necessary to keep it going, e.g., stuffing envelopes, answering the phone and basic organizational work, would provide an opportunity to engage in the requisite routines which seldom receive spectacular notices in textbooks or newspaper articles. This is suggested so that each apprentice

(1) becomes familiar with the technique of maintaining community programs, and (2) learns the inside workings of community based organizations. Apprentices should also find an action problem, i.e., work with a family that has a child who has been psychologically evaluated as mentally retarded, or with a child who has been expelled from school because of behavior problems. This will then allow the apprentice to gain some experience in working not only with community members but also in maze running, i.e., dealing with the many specialty offices, roles, and statuses with constitutce community organizational structures such as the bureaucrantic framework of the school system.

Another alternative would be to serve as a research assistant during at least the developing stages of large research project. Then, apprentices can become familiar with the developmental aspects of the project as well as the collection, analysis and interpretation of data.

Readings. General sociology, applied sociology texts, social change, and systems analysis would be most helpful if completed in conjunction with practical experience.

Health Systems:

One resorce unavailable to members of the surplus population is health services. Lack of access to these services can be a major differential that create inequality of desired resources between majority and minority groups.

Coursework and Content. Courses dealing with public and private health services and delivery systems would be most beneficial. This would enable apprentice field teachers to become familiar with services offered and also provide knowledge about the most effective means that these services can be used by the members of a community.

Fieldwork. Field experience could be made availavle with Departments of Public Health, local clinics as well as becoming an aide or orderly at one of the local hospitals. Another possibility is to work with one of the the many Advocacy offices that have emerged, being an advocate for a person who is in need of medical and/or social services. These field experiences will enable the apprentice field teacher to become familiar with the services that could be offered, if it is known that the services do exist, and also, how these services are viewed by community members.

Another possibility (in Nashville) would be to contact the Urban Observatory which is conducting an Evaluation Survey of Health Resources for the area.

Readings. Readings that would be most helpful would be those concerned with nutrition, public and mental health (services and delivery), professionalism in the medical profession, social services, and the sociology of medicine would be of benefit to the apprentice field teacher.

Educational System:

Part of the time that the field teacher apprentice spends in the field will be with children and their parents. In order to fulfill the needs of the parent and the socialization patterns that want for their children, courses in education are also recommended.

Coursework and Content. Coursework on techniques and methods of teaching would be helpful, although unnecessary if the content of the courses is available elsewhere. However, courses describing the use of instructional objectives and current research in the field of education are appropriate. Also, stress is placed on identifying behavioral objectives, and practica. Courses dealing with history and philosophy of education may be helpful in identifying trends, fads and other attempts at change.

Fieldwork. Individual tutoring, working with individual children in school, at home, or in an alternative educational setting would be appropriate. The ideal field setting would include the apprentice field teacher 1) teaching a child a specific task, or curricular subject, and 2) helping a child who has been labelled as "different." The tutoring and/or assistance is to be consistant with the wishes of the child and the child's parents.

Readings. Readings should include texts on alternative schools; reports about the existant school systems, e.g., Janowitz; studies on urban and rural education; and popular literature about the "present school dilemma" that exists in educational institutions. Stress should be placed on recent research concerning the role of education in society, e.g., Friedenburg's Coming of Age in America. Program development readings would also be of benefit as an aid to the apprentice teacher in the field.

APPENDIX D

Curriculum Sequence of Field Teaching Training Program

The curriculum sequence for training field teachers may begin when a person enters as a freshman or a senior. Entrance into the field teacher training sequence will be obtained by enrolling for Human Behavior 110. This course may be used for personal growth, familiarity with community agencies and/or independent reading. One of the products obtained by enrolling in HB (Human Behavior) 110 will be for people to outline a program of studies, to submit the program of studies to the field teacher training faculty, and to negotiate an acceptable program of learning which will continue through the remainder of their B.A. college activities. After the student has completed HB 110 and is screened into the Human Behavior Program with a field teaching emphasis, the student will enroll for Human Behavior 210. HB 210 will consist of short seminars (e.g., Life styles among various social strata; Participant observation recording procedures) as well as Task Group activities. Task Group activities will be directed toward outlining goals and objectives to implement neighborhood activities leading to changes in frequency and quality of local people's involvement in community decisions, and to develop the means by which these activities will be achieved. In effect, the Task or Seminar Group activities are conceptualized as an organizational base for a "Naider's Raiders" in education.

During the final year of the training program, the field teacher apprentice will obtain an internship--i.e., a full time work situation-field experience in which each apprentice will experience first hand application of the systemic, theoretical and research studies, as well as learning first-hand application of the critical thinking that has been developed during course work. The internship will be classified as Human Behavior 220 and will require the student to integrate all coursework, task group experiences and the internship into a reported area paper.

The area paper is to be reviewed by the Human Behavior coordinating committee and field teacher staff. The preparation and presentation of an area paper is part of the monitoring process. Each apprentice field teacher agrees to prepare an area paper as a demonstration of integrating all major on and off-campus activities of the student for the year. Completion of the report and acceptance of it by two readers is necessary before the seminar activities are considered complete. This report will be checked against individualized criteria for completion of previously agreed upon tasks established to meet the apprentice field teacher's program of studies.

Monitoring procedures for activities and participation in seminars are based upon the assumption that the content is the integration of academics with real world problems. Accordingly, monitoring procedures provide a rational framework for making decisions about sequences of steps (a) for identifying possible agencies for field work, (b) for obtaining a field position, and (c) for self-evaluation. Task and Seminar Group activities serve as one phase of the monitoring process. Descriptions about 1) what is being done in various field projects,

2) what is being accomplished in various classes, 3) how the two sets of activities do or do not relate, and 4) what problems are encountered, are included as part of the Task and Seminar Group activities.

Through these different instructional procedures, learning acquires two different meanings and thus is interpreted to be derived from two different sets of activities. On the one hand, learning that is derived from lecture discusssion settings may be interpreted to occur as the result of a linear relationship between the content and procedures outlined by an intructor for a course being offered during restricted portions of a calendar year. On the other hand, learning that is directly involved in decisions that affect the individuals (Heiny and Cunningham, 1972).

Activities that relate to learning from lecture discussion learning may be provided in the form of programmed sequences of experiences where identified means of instruction are considered important enough to be completed by all students in the prescribed manner to some arbitiary standard for grading. At the same time, learning that derives from field teaching is the result of "attempts to differentiate between spurious and patterned events in order to understand more about the universe, and, thus, be in more direct control of what happens to self and society (Heiny and Cunningham, 1972)."

The combination of the meanings and activities associated with field and course settings is considered appropriate to the assumptions and concepts that are associated with the field teacher training model for the prevention and amelieration of institutional procedures which foster the creation of a surplus population.

Summary of Assumptions and Field Teacher Model

The field teacher model has been offered as an alternative to the traditional model for teaching and training personnel who attempt to prevent handicaps. Specifically, the alternative is "based on the social sciences and (1) outlines handicapping conditions as resulting from processes of social interaction; (2) accounts for social change mechanisms; and (3) accomodates cultural pluralism...for the maintenance of a democracy (Heiny and Cunningham, 1970)."

This alternative model is rooted in three basic assumptions: (1) social institutions constitute components of a social system; (2) education processes within these institutions focus upon preparing role holders to replace current institutional role holders; and (3) prospective role holders are evaluated and some are eliminated from specific roles resulting in the creation of a surplus population (Farber, 1968).

In an effort to translate the concepts and assumptions into an effective role for special educators, the field teacher apprenticeship has been offered. The program emphasize social action through community organization and a theoretical understanding of social science disciplines and social organization. The integration of learning that occurs as the result of both action and theory will enable the apprentice field teacher to explore easy that will assist community members to accomodate cultural pluralism in a manner that will 1) adjust the components of social institution, 2) restructure institutional priorities from one of preparing replacements for current role holders and offering, instead, a priority to support and understand life styles that are consistant with community values, and, therefore 3) prevent the systematic elimination of of certain individuals from roles in society, that is, the prevention of the identification of a surplus population.

In conclusion, a logical and necessary sequence has been established for training individuals to perform as change agents--the field teacher. The rationale, curriculum, administration and development of this prototype model have been suggested as one means to implement a social science based training program for teachers in a naturalistic setting.

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APPENDIX E

Notes for Introduction to Issues:

Issues are matters of action or intended action on which people disagree. The disagreements may lead to a review of possible alternatives of pursued or intended to be pursued actions. Issues can become arguments about which came first, the chicken or the egg. Understanding relationships between handicaps and field teaching requires the study of issues generated and reported in professional and popular presses. Study of these issues requires gaining a "sense of history" and a familiarity with basic philosophy, objectives, methods and scientific research results and in professional practices education. In order to assist each prospective apprentice field teacher and each novice behavioral scientist concerned with deviance and competence, several recurring issues are briefly reviewed, summarized and critiqued, especially as they relate to exceptional children.

Spending time in chicken-or-egg debates probably, will not lead to a final resolve of any of the issues if historical accounts are valid bases for predicting future outcomes. Therefore, as issues and resolves which result in the identification and treatment of handicaps are considered, the logical, axiological and metaphysical biases used by each author and scientist are reviewed for similarities and differences. Although these biases are abstract elements usually left for discussion by philosophers, they also are attempts to summarize primary cause-effect relationships which often are treated as assumptions by professionals and scientists.

For example, essays by Sartre are not expected to present the world and its phenomena as related in a rational manner. "New", different or ironically unexpected events accepted as the substance of discussions. In the same way, when an article about psycho-linguistics and handicaps by Kirk is read, the reader expects observations to be treated as thought they are lawfully (predictably) related and knowable. In their writings and in their public work, but not necessarily in their private lives, both authors use different starting points for understanding the world. Such initial differences provide cues to predictable differences in ways to identify, prevent and treat handicaps. Additional differences exist throughout the literature about handicaps.

Such lack of one absolute way to view the world results in posing hypotheses about how the world goes together. Several hypotheses related to issues which have resulted in the study of the handicaps include:

H_1. No single resolve to any one of these issues let alone their interaction has been presented and accepted by all people throughout recorded history.

H_2. Religions and related belief systems have been formed around different sides of these issues and are still competing for the right to represent and sponsor "the truth".

H_3. Governments and nations are formed to protect one or more resolves to these issues, and compete with other governments for the right to protect their brand of resolve.

H_4. Professions and related service delivery system members are developing to implement one side of an issue concerning social justice for a segment of a population, but soon burn out of zeal and resort to organizing themselves for self maintenance measured by effectiveness and efficiency of operation.

H_5. Popular and academic fads surface in cycles as succeeding generations rediscover a version of the wheel and attempt to claim the discovery of a panacea without reviewing limitations and mistakes experienced by previous users.

These hypotheses have not been tested formally, but are used as assumptions underlying the use of issues which generate and maintain the concept of handicaps and practices related to the concept. Implicit review of these hypothese/assumptions is possible by considering the literature listed in Appendix ___. These issues are resolved temporarily daily by professionals and laymen by specifying the conditions (time, place, intended goal) under which one perspective is appropriate, and the conditions under which another perspective is appropriate. Each apprentice field teacher will identify these conditions and appropriately relate this literature and these categories to prevention of handicaps. Major issues considered by field teachers are:

1. Handicaps are a predicament or a dilemma.
2. Handicaps are related to public issues of social structure or to personal troubles of mileau.
3. Handicaps are related to theory, practice, or research.
4. Handicaps are a concern of the nature or the nurture of the (organism) human being.
5. Handicaps are related to ethics of responsibility or ethics of conviction.

Selected recommended readings within and between these issues are listed for your study.